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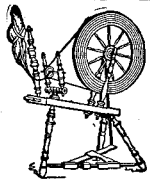

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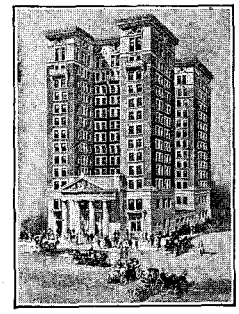

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, MAY 5, 1906

The Spirit of San Francisco

A Telegraphic Pen Picture by Benjamin Ide Wheeler

President of the University of California

THE population of a great city suddenly robbed of the entire shelter and equipment of civilized life is left standing bare under the stars. No roofs, light, food, water, furniture, or tools; one suit for each person, or scarcely that. No cars; only automobiles, bicycles, and wagons; the movement is mostly on foot around a fourteen-mile hem of desolation. The banks have their money locked in heated vaults. There is nothing to buy—no shops; the largest department store advertises to open in small dwelling here. No paper, no printing-press, no telephones or telegraph. City engineers without level or compass, without records of streets or pipes. Every library burned—Public, Mechanics', Mercantile, Sutro, Law; only the unique Bancroft Library of Original Documents preserved, and now rendered priceless. It will be transported directly to Berkeley as the property of the State University. No courts or governmental buildings. The externals of life are reduced to a condition of primitive savagery. Unerringly self-government springs anew from root without resort to military laws; the ablest men come to the front; the people welcome leadership of intelligence and integrity. The government is practically in the hands of the excellent Citizens' Committee, with the Mayor presiding. Hundreds of car-loads of provisions, especially of cooked food, rushed in from coast cities, averted the danger of famine. Superb order from the first. People brave, unrepining, "game;" half population now camping at Oakland and Berkeley, or departed into country. First outlook for the future dark. It is resolved to rebuild. Determination unhesitating. Confidence restored. Mr. Harriman's coming had an excellent effect. City certainly to arise immediately finer than old. The experience of the earthquake proves steel-cage construction absolutely secure. The taller the buildings the better; six modern steel buildings which were burned out will be in use again inside ninety days. Scientific commission studying effects of earthquake. Professors Lawson, Gilbert, and Branner say that it is evident that the earth-shivering attains greatly enhanced amplitude in passing into the soft soil and the alluvial sand. Same shock all along the line of the old geologic fault from Russian River to Salinas, but the destruction of buildings was only on soft or new-made soil. The lesson is that of varying construction for varying soil. Money needed to feed a hundred thousand people for thirty days, fifty thousand another thirty. Then fund needed to help deserving men to get on their feet. So we can use large amounts advantageously now.

BENJAMIN IDE WHEELER.

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The Situation in San Francisco

In response to a request from The Outlook, Dr. Benjamin Ide Wheeler, President of the University of California, at Berkeley, at the end of last week sent the despatch printed on the preceding page, which gives what seems to us an extremely valuable bird's-eye view of the situation in San Francisco, of the special needs of the people, and of the efforts on foot for reconstruction. The message has special force as coming from a man of National reputation and of proved judgment and wisdom. Elsewhere in this issue of The Outlook will be found some personal impressions of the Spectator on the day of the calamity. It may be added that a member of the editorial staff of The Outlook left for San Francisco on receipt of the news of the disaster, is now in that city, and will, at the earliest day consistent with the general purpose of his mission, tell the readers of The Outlook with some fullness about the actual state of affairs existing there, the plans for reconstruction, the administration of the greatest relief fund this country has ever gathered together, the conduct and courage of the people under their affliction, the human and dramatic phases of the period of endurance, and whatever else may seem to be of permanent rather than of temporary interest. During last week progress was made in systematizing the plans for relief and the methods of applying this relief with as little waste as possible. Secretary Metcalf, of the Department of Commerce and Labor, reported to the President from San Francisco that his estimate of the loss of life in that city was not far from three hundred, with a thousand injured. Other estimates place the loss of life somewhat in excess of this. Secretary Metcalf declares, however, that the industrial and commercial losses are appalling and demand financial planning on a very large scale. He found little suffering from lack of provisions or water, no epidemics, and on the whole the health of the people excellent, all things considered. The sale of liquor in San Francisco, Oakland, and near-by places has been strictly prohibited; looting has been sternly suppressed; the report that some of the militia were shooting recklessly appears to have been exaggerated, although the death of Mr. H. C. Tilden, a member of the relief committee, by such reckless shooting is one of the most deplorable incidents of the calamity. At the suggestion of President Roosevelt, a coalition has been made between the Red Cross Association and the San Francisco Citizens' Committee. Ex-Mayor James D. Phelan has been made chairman of the finance committee of the Citizens' Committee, and all contributions, including those from the Red Cross fund, will be disbursed on his order. Mr. Phelan is a public-spirited citizen in whom every one has entire confidence. Dr. Devine, the special representative of the Red Cross, arrived in San Francisco early last week, and has co-operated with the Citizens' Committee to establish scientific and economical methods of distribution. The homeless citizens have in large numbers been received into houses still standing in San Francisco, or have been hospitably welcomed by the people of near-by towns, but the camps still contain many thousands who must be cared for as to food, shelter, and sanitation. Electric cars are beginning to run. The railroads have shown great generosity in giving free transportation to those who wish to leave for any point west of Chicago. The bounty of the country at large continued to be poured forth during the week with astonishing liberality—the fund is now about $20,000,000, and New York City alone has given about $4,000,000. The financial situation is a difficult one because of the destruction of the banks and the burying beneath the ruins of immense funds which have not yet been recovered, and the instant need of ready money for the rebuilding of the city. It is said that Congress may be asked to guarantee a long-time low interest bond loan by San Francisco. The President has asked Congress to appropriate money for work at the Mare Island Navy-Yard to give needed employment. It is recognized that the opportunity to make San Francisco one of the most beautiful cities of the world is not to be neglected, and it is quite probable that an adaptation of the plans made tentatively some

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time ago by Mr. Burnham, the architect, will be followed, including a beautiful civic center with radiating boulevards and a fine outer boulevard encircling the city along the bay and ocean. The business section will doubtless shift somewhat its position. General Greely has assumed command of the military situation, and has brought in more troops to aid in preserving discipline and to afford rest to the overworked soldiers of the regular army. From every quarter comes the highest praise for the way in which the military situation has been handled by General Funston and later by General Greely. A few comparatively slight earthquake tremors were felt on the Pacific Coast during the week. The loss at San José is reckoned at not less than $8,000,000; that at Stanford University as perhaps $400,000.

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Efforts to Avert a Hard-Coal Strike

In the hope of reaching a basis upon which the present suspension of anthracite coal mining could be declared at an end, two entirely new propositions were presented last week to the hard-coal operators by the anthracite mine employees. On April 27, the day following, they were rejected by the representatives of the anthracite-carrying railroad companies. These proposals from the mine workers' committee in effect abandon all the various demands previously made and rejected by the operators, except as to a wage increase. The first proposal groups the employees about the collieries into five different classes, according to the wages paid, and asks for a sliding scale increase in wages by groups, the increase ranging from fifteen per cent. for those receiving one dollar or less a day, to five per cent. for the best-paid employees. In case this plan were refused by the operators, it was requested by the committee that the operators grant an advance in wages equal to ten cents per ton upon the total production. In case either proposition were accepted, the committee claims that the increase in the labor cost of the domestic sizes of anthracite would not exceed sixteen cents a ton. In support of the demand the committee states that "it will not be seriously contended that any man who receives less than two dollars per day can support and educate his family in a manner at all conformable to American standards, especially in the mining industry, where men are not given the opportunity to work more than two hundred and twenty-five days in any one year." And yet, it claims, there are thousands upon thousands of miners, with families to support, who receive between $1.17 and $1.75 per day. The committee also refers to the great hazard incident to employment in the anthracite mines and to the skill and experience required by contract miners, and contends that the support and maintenance of the injured as well as of large numbers of widows and orphans throughout the region is borne in a large measure by those who depend upon the mining industry for their livelihood. The operators, in rejecting the propositions, reiterate their plan for a limited arbitration of new issues and a three-year agreement, and quote the award of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission on the subject of wages in the hard-coal industry. The reply of the operators goes somewhat into detail as to the increase in the cost of labor if either of the mine workers' propositions were granted, stating that the operators cannot afford to pay this large annual increase (estimated at $6,100,000 for the entire industry) without imposing additional burdens upon the coal-consuming public, and claiming that there has been no increase in the profits of the business upon which could be based any claim for increased wages. The operators' letter closes as follows: "In view of all the circumstances, we are satisfied that the true course was indicated in our original proposition. This was that existing conditions should be continued for a period of three years. We trust that on Thursday next the deliberate judgment of the anthracite workers will result in an acceptance of that proposal; but if not, that they will join with us in the arbitration we have offered. Failing to meet us on either proposition, the responsibility of a strike must rest upon you." It will be remembered that the arbitration offered by the operators excludes, according to the

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miners' views, everything in real question between employers and employees. In a statement by Mr. Mitchell following this letter he says: "There is no instance on record during the quarter of a century in which the railroads have dominated the anthracite industry that an advance in wages has been granted to their employees. Every concession has been wrung from them by strikes and the pressure of public sentiment. . . . The question is asked by the operators, Where is the advance to come from, if it is not charged up to the consumer of domestic coal? It occurs to me that the small advance proposed by the miners might have been taken off the exorbitant freight rates charged by them." For the purpose of hearing the report of the committee, which has been carrying on these negotiations with the operators for the past three months and more, and to determine the policy of the organization in the anthracite industry as to a continuance of the present suspension, the officials of the United Mine Workers of America last week issued a call for a special convention of mine employees of the three anthracite districts to meet at Scranton, Pennsylvania, on May 3.

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Secretary Taft on Citizenship

The entire country is likely to take an interest in the series of lectures now being delivered before Yale University by Secretary Taft, for in subject and in treatment they are of the broadest public character. They deal with the duties and responsibilities of citizens in turn from the view-point of the college graduate, the bench, colonial administration, and the National executive. The second of these addresses, delivered last week, emphasized and enforced the President's "Muck-Rake" speech. Mr. Taft recognized the existence of corruption in municipal government, but pointed out the encouraging movements to stamp the evils out. In National affairs he said that there has been a very decided improvement in the disinterestedness of legislators in the last twenty-five years, and the freedom from venality and corruption in Congress and executive departments. But for all abuses of corporations, legislative and city officials, the remedy is not, he remarked, distorted, sensational, and exaggerated charges, but in taking measures to secure the maintenance and supremacy of the law, "in the training and character of the individual, on the one hand, and in the strengthening of the arm of the law by judicial procedure on the other." As to the evils of excessive wealth, and its proposed discouragement by an inheritance tax, Mr. Taft said:

> Neither under the common law nor under the Constitution is the right of descent of property or of devising it an inalienable right. It depends wholly upon the Legislature, and therefore if the Legislature sees fit to create a tendency to the division of fortunes and prevent their greater accumulation in the second and third generations, there are ample means under our present system and without revolutionary methods to bring this about.

The whole argument was directed against any kind of unlawful and violent action by the people at large, even to attack real evils. This, he declared, was to substitute chaos for a government of law. Reverence for law he found less strongly developed here than in England; we must learn to demand and insist on its enforcement. While the jury system should be upheld, there is great value in the common-law plan of letting the court aid and instruct the jury so as to make the trial as originally intended, one by judge and jury, not solely by jury. In Southern and Western States there is what was characterized as a dangerous tendency to forbid the court thus to aid the jury, with the result that the law-abiding element tries to get criminals into the Federal courts, where the judges take more latitude. Lynch law, delays in trial—so that a case which would take a day in England may drag for two or three weeks here—the taking of special favors (like railway passes) by judges, the abuses of the privileges of the press—all were held up to reprobation as incompatible with justice and respect for the law and its administration. "The courts are the background of civilization. The United States Supreme Court is the background of the whole Government. It is the last resort. Its power rests upon the supremacy of fundamental law. It is possible to

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bring legislatures to adopt new amendments to the laws that will bring criminals to justice. Exercise of this privilege is one of the highest duties of citizenship."

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An Unjust but Constitutional Tax

The New York Court of Appeals has rendered a decision sustaining the constitutionality of the stock transfer tax law. This law, passed just a year ago, exacts a tax of two dollars on every hundred shares of stock sold at any private sale or on the floor of any exchange in this State. The Outlook has already vigorously protested against the unwisdom and injustice of such a law, on the ground that it is class legislation and that it establishes a dangerous precedent for the taxation of energy or industry. If the sale of shares of stock may be taxed, the sale of silk, butter, lead pencils, or subscriptions to newspapers may be taxed. The Court of Appeals answers the first objection by saying that it is not class taxation, since it "includes all sales of certificates issued by any domestic or foreign company or corporation," and "treats all in the class alike." As to the second objection, the Court explicitly states that the Legislature has the constitutional power to impose a tax upon any one class of property or any one kind of contracts. While it may not tax "a particular house, or horse, or the houses or horses of a particular man," it may impose a tax "upon all houses, leaving barns and business buildings untaxed, or upon all horses or the sale thereof, leaving sheep and cows untaxed." The decision of the Court of Appeals that such a method of taxation is constitutional directs attention in a very emphatic way to the unscientific and therefore the uneconomic and unjust way in which our taxes are imposed. There was, apparently, no intention in the Legislature to tax the business of the stock-broker out of existence. The legislators simply saw a good opportunity of adding several millions of dollars a year—the revenue from this tax has amounted to over five million dollars since April, 1905—to the State income. But the decision of the Court that the stock tax is not a tax on property, but is a tax "on the privilege of transfer," and is even in this aspect entirely constitutional, appears to us to give the Legislature a very dangerous power over commercial and [illegible] enterprise. The [illegible] buildings, for example, on the supposition that they are merely the luxuries of very rich men, might be so taxed as very greatly to restrict or perhaps prohibit the artistic development of the State. The concluding sentence of the Court's decision is significant: "The question is not whether the statute is wise, but whether it is valid, and we think it is valid." This throws the burden for the wisdom of all legislation where it really ought to lie, upon the people. Sooner or later some sort of intelligent and efficient public opinion must be formed upon the laws and methods of taxation in New York State. The stock transfer tax can be tolerated by the brokers whom it unjustly affects, but it ought not to be tolerated by the people at large, when they realize that it is a symptom of the generally bad condition of our tax laws

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Honoring John Paul Jones

On Wednesday of last week, with most impressive ceremonies and in the presence of a large body of distinguished men of this and other countries, the remains of John Paul Jones were placed in their permanent resting-place in Bancroft Hall, of the Annapolis Naval Academy. The day was the anniversary of one in which the first American naval commander won a victory with his little sloop called The Ranger. The military and naval display was in the highest degree picturesque, and in every possible way the occasion was made a worthy memorial of the man and his brilliant and patriotic achievements. Addresses were made by President Roosevelt, by M. Jusserand, the French Ambassador, by General Horace Porter, to whom is largely due the discovery of the forgotten and neglected remains of the National hero, and by Governor Warfield, of Maryland. The President reviewed vividly and with dramatic effect the deeds of John Paul Jones, and held up for example to the assembly "the in-

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domitable determination and dauntless scorn of death" which marked his career. The lesson that he drew from the early naval history of the country, and especially from what he described as the utter folly of our lack of preparation in the War of 1812, when the burning of Washington was made possible by our failure to provide defense, was as follows:

> This Nation was guilty of such short-sightedness, of such folly, of such lack of preparation, that it was forced supinely to submit to the insult and was impotent to avenge it; and it was only the good fortune of having in Andrew Jackson a great natural soldier that prevented a repetition of the disaster at New Orleans. Let us remember our own shortcomings and see to it that the men in public life to-day are not permitted to bring about a state of things by which we should in effect invite a repetition of such a humiliation. We can afford as a people to differ on ordinary party questions; but if we are both far-sighted and patriotic, we cannot afford to differ on the all-important question of keeping the National defenses as they should be kept; of not alone keeping up but of going on with building up the United States navy, and of keeping our small army at least at its present size, and making it the most efficient for its size that there is on the globe.

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Forward Steps in Russia

Many months ago Count Witte, now the Russian Prime Minister, presented to the Czar a programme of political reform. Among the items were the following: The Council of State, one of the four great boards or councils, possessing separate functions, to which the present Imperial administration is intrusted, was to have half its members elected from the different social classes; the rights of the zemstvos, or provincial councils, were to be extended; the historical political rights of the Finns, Poles, Georgians, and other border nationalities were to be restored as far as possible; the Imperial police system was to be reorganized; arbitrary judgments respecting personal liberty were to be abolished; exceptional laws against the Jews were to be repealed (Countess Witte is by birth a Jewess); secret State organizations for spying on the people were to be suppressed and the censorship of the press was to be modified. Count Witte's first recommendation soon bore fruit. A year ago the Czar published a rescript containing these welcome words: "I am resolved henceforth, with the help of God, to convene the most worthy men—possessing the confidence of the people and elected by them—in order that they may participate in the preparation and consideration of legislative measures." Five months later the Czar announced his definite plan—a national assembly, or parliament, the elections to which would cover the whole Empire, with certain exceptions, as Finland and Poland, where special conditions obtain. The Duma or Lower House of Parliament would meet "for the preliminary study and discussion of legislative propositions, which, *according to the fundamental laws*, may be submitted to the supreme autocratic authority by the Council of the Empire," a body now to become the Upper House of the new Parliament. The Duma's competency was to extend to departmental, ministerial, and national budgets; to questions relating to new laws and to modifications of existing laws; to ministerial appointments; to the expropriation of any State property or revenue. The Duma's term was to be for five years, and the Czar might dissolve it at any time. It was thus an advisory body. On October 30 last the Czar transformed it into a legislative body, though with very restricted powers. He granted the elementary rights of freedom of conscience, speech, meeting, organization, and publication; he extended the Parliamentary electorate and he declared that no law should be enforceable without Parliament's approval. Later he restored to the Finns their ancient liberties and admitted the Poles to Parliamentary membership. Finally, last week, an Imperial Commission completed the elaboration of laws containing guarantees of personal liberty to be submitted to the Duma, the chief features being that a person arrested shall be confronted with the charge against him and be given a hearing within twenty-four hours after the arrest is made, and that no domiciliary arrest be made without a warrant; the laws further provide for the inviolability of personal property, and espe-

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cially to those relating to personal correspondence.

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Backward Steps in Russia

During the past few weeks the Russian elections have been taking place; they are not yet completed. They are primary and secondary—that is, the people elect electors, who in turn meet and elect representatives to the Duma, or Lower House of Parliament. Half the Council, or Upper House, is chosen by specially mentioned university, commercial, and other bodies; the remaining half by the Czar. So far, over three hundred Duma members have been elected. The vast majority are Constitutional Democrats—as their name implies, those who believe in the immediate establishment of a constitution on a democratic basis. The Constitutional Democrats have even invaded the far more conservatively organized Council, the universities, for instance, sending thither a solid block of that party's representatives. Moreover, from that party the most genuinely representative popular leaders have arisen—Petrunkevitch, Miliukov, Hessen, and many others. The reactionary conservatives—the court, church, military, and bureaucratic circles—were sufficiently alarmed at the Czar's increasingly democratic disposition. The spectacle of their country, however, actually passing, by unexpectedly orderly elections, from autocracy to authorized democracy, has made the reactionaries well-nigh panic-stricken, if we may judge from the Congress of Monarchists' resolutions passed at Moscow last week—that the new Parliament will not be representative of Russian public opinion, that the Finns and Poles are unworthy of the privileges granted, and that Jews should be treated as foreigners and excluded from all rights! Instead of frankly accepting the people's verdict as shown at the elections, the Czar himself has now done much to placate the reactionaries and to antagonize not only the revolutionaries, but also the Liberals, by the publication of a new edition of the "fundamental laws" above mentioned—a deliberate attempt to intrench every threatened Imperial prerogative and to retain all possible power. It is announced that this edition of the "fundamental laws" was drafted by the Cabinet and other high Government dignitaries under the Czar's presidency. These laws are not only a modification of those "fundamental laws" beyond Parliament's competency, but also an incorporation of certain temporary laws which it was believed would remain in force only until Parliament met.

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The New "Fundamental Laws"

According to the telegraphed reports, the new laws repeat the language of the Freedom Manifesto in reserving the Czar's absolute foreign and military prerogatives, including the power to declare peace and war. This was to be expected. After nearly four decades of constitutional government, the Austrian Emperor exercises like authority. The privilege of making war and peace is also held by the German Emperor and the English King. A second article preserves to the Czar the prerogative of declaring cities, districts, and provinces under martial law—a prerogative also held by the President of France. A third clause prohibits Parliament from interfering with expenditures of the Imperial house or with allowances made to members of the Imperial family unless these exceed the amounts included in the present year's budget—an irritating provision. More irritating is the clause by which no law passed by Parliament shall be enforced until it shall have been approved and published by the "Senate"—a body established by Peter the Great nearly two centuries ago, the Empire's high court of justice, which constitutes the second of the present four great boards or councils of government in Russia; under existing conditions a law to be valid must be promulgated by the Senate. In this country the question of a law's constitutionality is decided after it becomes operative, not before, as is proposed for Russia, and the difference is rudimental. Not only irritating, however, but exasperating is the clause confirming the Czar's power to dissolve Parliament, to which no provision is added

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as to the fixed time in which a new Parliament shall convene. Finally, worst of all is the clause by which the right of freedom of residence is now again subject to "existing regulations." So, after all, the Czar would confine the Jew to his pale and the peasant to his glebe! The announcement of these latter provisions has aroused indignation throughout Russia and intensified the suspicion that, after all, the "Little Father" may play his people false. He has certainly furnished a permanent reason to solidify the opposition of the Constitutional Democratic members-elect of the Duma. As compared with the lower houses of other European Parliaments, that body will have limited powers, chiefly evident in the fact that, unlike those bodies, it is granted little influence over the disposition of the nation's purse. Let it not be forgotten, however, that a long and direct step away from autocracy lies in the creation of a body by which a gratifyingly large proportion—including the most intelligent section—of the Russian people become politically articulate. That the Duma members will gradually and ultimately graft upon these "fundamental laws" many needed reforms we do not doubt.

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President Hadley at the University of Berlin

The announcement was made last week that Dr. Arthur T. Hadley, President of Yale University, had accepted an appointment as Roosevelt Professor of American History and Institutions in the University of Berlin, for the academic year 1907–8. President Hadley's subject will be the extremely important topic, "Economic Problems in the United States." This is the latest and most interesting development of the endowment by Mr. James Speyer of an International Professorship, the intention of which is to allow Germany and America to make an exchange of instructors every year. As The Outlook has already said in commenting on this educational development, in no other way could intimate relations so well be encouraged between nations which are contributing to the broad spirit of internationalism. The project was approved by the German Emperor a year ago this summer. Under the terms of the endowment, the nominations are made on this side the ocean by the Trustees of Columbia University, subject to confirmation by the Prussian Ministry of Education and with the sanction of the Emperor. The first incumbent of this professorship was Dr. Burgess, of Columbia University, who has been the past winter delivering lectures on American Constitutional History. The plan has been so arranged that American history, constitutional and administrative law, economic and sociological problems, education, science, technology, the arts and literature, will be presented successively by the American lecturers who will be appointed from year to year. A similar professorship, to be held by German scholars, will exist in New York, and the lectures will be delivered at Columbia University in English. This fraternal international exchange of scholarship is kindred to the somewhat similar arrangement existing between Harvard and the University of Berlin, although in the latter case one member of each of the two institutions enters the regular teaching staff of the other for at least three months. All who are interested in the cause of education or in the cause of international friendship will see in such mutual interchanges as these one of the most hopeful signs of a great world-brotherhood in knowledge. These professorships cannot fail to do a great deal also to encourage courteous appreciation and esteem between the two great nations concerned.

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The Olympic Games

American, English, German, Austrian, French, Irish, Australian, and Greek athletes gathered at Athens last week to engage in the revived Olympic Games. The contests began on Friday, but the games were officially opened by ceremony five days before. The King and Queen of Greece, the King and Queen of Great Britain, members of the royal families and representatives of European courts, in royal procession, traversed the length of the great stadion. The Duke of Sparta, who is the Crown Prince,

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made a formal address and the King declared the games open. Nine hundred athletes then passed in review before the King. The athletic contests are a combination of the contests of ancient and of modern times. Running, jumping, pole-vaulting, discus-throwing, wrestling, swimming, fencing, and the like constitute the events. The pentathlon, or fivefold competition for the "all-around" championship, and the Marathon Race (a long, hard run from Marathon to Athens) are peculiar to these games. The ancient Olympic games are familiar to every reader of Greek literature. Their origin is lost in antiquity. It is certain that they were in existence over seven hundred years before the Christian era. They were patriotic as well as athletic in character, and for generations were the one force that bound the warring States of Greece together. They fostered certain high ethical standards, though many of the practices maintained at them would shock the less elemental, more sophisticated modern world. With the decadence of Greece the games degenerated and were finally abolished. For fifteen hundred years they remained unobserved. In 1896, however, the games were revived by an International Committee. They were held that year in Athens, in 1900 at Paris, and in 1904 at St. Louis. In the opening competitions this year the Americans have had distinguished success.

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Music in St. Louis

In view of the widely published stories of deficits in orchestral organizations in many large cities, and of the determination to discontinue some orchestras that have been in existence for many years because the great body of citizens refuse to support them and the few rich music-lovers have grown tired of making good the yearly loss, it is interesting to note that an enterprising Western organization, the St. Louis Choral-Symphony Society, has just closed its season, not only without a deficit, but with a small balance in the treasury. The Society has been entirely self-supporting during the season just past, relying solely upon its regular subscriptions and upon the proceeds of the series of popular concerts which were given on Sunday afternoons during the winter. It has no guarantors—no permanent fund; in fact, nothing but its own unaided efforts to rely upon. The music given, whether at the regular subscription concerts or at the popular concerts, has been of a high order, embracing the best classic and modern symphonic compositions. Soloists of great reputation and ability have appeared, and the audiences have filled the house at every performance. The managers seem to have realized the fact that nothing succeeds in America permanently that is not democratic, and that the Society's future depended upon the plain, every-day people; so during the past season it departed from its tradition of twenty-six years' history and relied no longer upon the support of the generous few, but went direct to the mass of music-lovers in St. Louis and appealed to them. The response was instantaneous and overflowing. The Society seems to embody an excellent combination of good business management and musical aptitude, and the results have been shown in a success that should be both an encouragement and an example to other cities.

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John Knowles Paine

The death of Professor John Knowles Paine last week ended a life which has been of very great value to America. He was the first man to establish music as a regular course of study in an American college. When, in 1862, he became instructor of music at Harvard, he had to face an enormous prejudice against music. Music was generally regarded in America as a diversion. Young ladies might be allowed to treat it as an accomplishment, but men were designed for sterner things. At last, however, in 1875, he succeeded in making music a regular department of Harvard University. He thus made Harvard the pioneer of regular university musical instruction in this country. As a teacher, Professor Paine's most distinguished quality was his thorough knowledge. He was a musician of high scholarship and unshakable ideals. His pupils will re-

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member his severe standards for musical composition, his extreme indulgence for the student, his whimsical eccentricities, his *naïveté* and likable egotism, his absorption in his art, and his finely simple spirit and character. He was the teacher of many of the best-equipped composers and writers on music in America. Professor Paine was distinguished as a composer. The high standing of his works is admitted by responsible critics everywhere. They included most of the recognized forms of music. Among them may be mentioned his "Spring Symphony," which is nowadays heard all too seldom; his music for the "Œdipus Tyrannus" of Sophocles; his "Columbus March and Hymn," composed for the exposition at Chicago in 1903; and a romantic opera, "Azara," which, though never publicly performed on the stage, has been heard in part in concert programmes and has been published. His music is dignified and individual. Unlike much modern music, it is never either merely pretty or merely interesting. Professor Paine was born in Portland, Maine, sixty-seven years ago. It was in that city that he received his first instruction in the art which later he did so much to advance.

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The Telharmonium Electricity, which has heretofore been chiefly a tool of industry, has now been made a worthy medium for the purest of the fine arts—music. The instrument through which electricity has thus acquired a new dignity is named the telharmonium. Its inventor is Dr. Thaddeus Cahill, who, with his two brothers, has been laboring for a decade to perfect it. In most musical instruments the sound is caused by the vibration of some material substance—a string, as in a violin or piano, a reed, as in a clarionet or oboe, a column of air, as in a trombone or an organ diapason; but in the telharmonium the sound is caused primarily by the vibration of an electric current. The keyboard of the instrument looks somewhat like that of an organ; the mechanism looks somewhat like the machinery of a big electric lighting and power plant; and the part of the instrument which is visible to the hearer looks somewhat like the horn of a huge phonograph. And each of these three parts—the keyboard, the mechanism, and the transmitter—may be miles apart from one another. A skillful performer upon the telharmonium can make it blare like a trumpet, snarl like a bassoon, warble like a flute, or sing like a violin. Four or five performers, playing in concert, will ultimately be able, it is believed, to produce an effect closely approaching that of a full orchestra; for each bank of keys is furnished with a set of stops somewhat like those of an organ, by means of which it can be made to produce tones almost if not quite identical with those of any family of instruments. At one keyboard one player can play the part of the strings; at another a second player can reproduce the tones of the oboe family; at another a third player can reproduce the tones of the brass; and so on. And each player is able in an instant to modify or transform the quality of tone which he is producing. Of course there are limitations in this power to imitate instruments. In the violin tone on the telharmonium there is nothing of resin and catgut; in the tone of the French horn there is not the occasional break characteristic of that instrument. On the other hand, the quality of tone in the telharmonium is capable of infinite variation. Instrumental effects are possible on it which have never before been heard.

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Its Construction The mechanism of the new instrument is a marvel of ingenuity. No adequate description of it is possible without the use of the technical terms of electricity and acoustics. Yet the general principles upon which it is constructed are simple. When the string of a violin, for example, sounds, it vibrates rapidly, and starts the air vibrating in turn. If the tone C is sounded, the string must vibrate its whole length 256 times a second. This means that little waves of air of a certain length are set in motion. But the string also vibrates in sections. These sectional vibrations set in motion ripples on the waves of air. So sensitive, however, are sound waves that these ripples, instead of appearing as ripples, show themselves

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by changing the shape, though not the length, of the waves. It is the length of the air waves that determines the pitch of a musical tone; it is the shape of these waves that determines its *timbre* or quality. The tone C sounded on a flute is of the same pitch with the tone C sounded on a violin; but the quality of tone is different because the number and strength of the ripples are different, and thus the shape of the waves produced by the one is different from the shape of the waves produced by the other. What Dr. Cahill has done is to set up a series of cogged wheels fitted to armatures, and by means of these to make electric currents vibrate at exactly predetermined rates. By one wheel he produces a note of a certain pitch; by means of other smaller wheels he makes the ripples—or overtones, as they are called. He can make these ripples strong or weak; he can shut some out and let others in. He can thus make a note of any pitch or quality he desires. By conducting the currents through what he calls "tone-mixers" he can make a single cogged wheel produce a note of a certain pitch by sending out waves of the required length and at the same time contribute ripples to other waves. The vibrations of the electric currents themselves, however, are silent. It is only when they set in motion a metallic disc that they produce sound. These electric currents can be transmitted over wires to a great distance and to a large number of discs. They can thus produce music simultaneously in widely separated places. If a person has electric-wire connections with a telharmonium, therefore, he can, by simply turning a button, hear the music which the performer or performers are playing. The sound is distinct and clear. It can be made audible to a large assemblage. Dr. Cahill and his brothers have been for years experimenting with tone-production. It seems as if at last they had constructed an instrument which can not only imitate other instruments and combinations of instruments, but also produce a distinctive quality of music. At present the instrument is in Dr. Cahill's laboratory at Holyoke, Massachusetts; but within a few months it is to be exhibited in New York City, where it will certainly attract attention.

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The Case of Dr. Crapsey

Most of last week was consumed in the proceedings of the ecclesiastical court convened at Batavia, New York, for the trial of Dr. Algernon S. Crapsey, charged with violating his ordination vows by public utterances contradictory to the doctrines of the Church. The virgin birth and the bodily resurrection of Jesus were the points on which his trial turned. A week before the trial a strongly signed petition for its postponement till after the annual meeting of the Diocesan Council in May was presented to Bishop Walker. The petition showed that the court was constituted of Dr. Crapsey's accusers, contrary to the intent of the canons of the diocese, and that its decision would be subject to review by the Bishop who had nominated the majority of the court. Without regard to the merits of the case, the petitioners grounded their request on the necessity of such fairness as would disarm injurious criticism. The trial proceeded, nevertheless. That Dr. Crapsey had made the statements charged was admitted. His defense was an effort to justify them. In his written statement he repeated the Apostles' Creed entire, and affirmed his sincere belief of it in every particular, stating the peculiar interpretations which he put upon the clauses he was charged with denying. Thus he made it plain that what he denied was not the words of the Creed, but their literal meaning. He was ably defended by his counsel, Congressman James B. Perkins and Mr. Edward M. Shepard. On the other side were Mr. John Lord O'Brien, of Buffalo, and Judge Stiness, of Rhode Island. Two clergymen also were allowed to address the court, the Rev. F. J. Hall, of Chicago, for the prosecution, and Dr. Elwood Worcester, of Boston, for the defense. A larger number would have spoken if permitted. The prosecution refused to discuss Dr. Crapsey's interpretations of the Creed, somewhat like Luther in his famous dispute with Zwingli, when he chalked on the table

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Hoc est meum corpus, and demanded answer, yes or no. The Creed was held to be denied if not literally affirmed. The five clergymen constituting the court have now to render their verdict by May 15. From it there is no appeal. But whatever it be, it is authoritative only within the diocese of Western New York. Editorial comment on this prosecution, which, as our readers will recall, an investigating committee had advised against, appears in another column.

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A Dante Museum

Being, as in the days of Boccaccio, "not a little proud of the privilege of guarding so great a treasure as the bones of him whose works fill with admiration the entire world," the city of Ravenna is about to erect a worthy monument in memory of Dante. This memorial is not to be of stone or marble like the sarcophagus which contains the poet's remains, over which bends a dome embellished with medallions of Dante's patrons; it is to be a monument of learning, not only to glorify the great poet, but quite as much to assist those who wish to study his works and the thought which nearly six centuries have devoted to them. The municipality of Ravenna, guarding Dante's grave, has now decreed the institution of a Dante Museum by agreeing to purchase one of the richest and most complete Dante libraries that has ever been gathered together. This collection was begun by the Dante scholar Leonetti, of Udine, and completed by Commendatore Olschky, of Florence. In attestation of its importance such well-known Dante students as Signori Bacci, Biagi, and Del Lungo have united in a published statement as to the high quality of the works, the bibliographic interest of many of them—particularly of certain fifteenth-century copies of the "Divine Comedy"—and the great wealth of general studies, commentaries, and translations. The Ravenna municipality, however, is poor. Subscriptions therefore are solicited; they should be forthcoming from Dante lovers everywhere, and should be addressed to Count Pier Desiderio Pasolini, Senator, Ravenna, Italy.

Women and Children in Industry

Many States have attempted to legislate for the protection of women and children engaged in industrial occupations, but they have been groping in the dark to a considerable extent because of the lack of comprehensive knowledge of actual conditions and of the real nature of the evils to be corrected. In view of this situation it is proposed that Congress direct the Department of Commerce and Labor "to investigate and report on the industrial, social, moral, educational, and physical condition of woman and child workers in the United States wherever employed, with special reference to their age, hours of labor, term of employment, health, illiteracy, sanitary and other conditions surrounding their occupation, and the means employed for the protection of their health, person, and morals." The proposition has the approval of the President, and a bill on the subject is now pending in Congress. According to the Twelfth Census, the number of women and children engaged in gainful occupations in the United States in 1900 was 5,319,336. Of this number, 2,095,449 were engaged in domestic and personal service, leaving 3,223,877 in agriculture, professional service, trade and transportation, and in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits. Women were found in all but eight of the 303 kinds of employment scheduled by the census. The number of children from ten to fifteen years of age engaged in gainful occupations at the time of the last census was 1,750,178. Of this number, 1,264,411 were males and 485,767 were females. The census gives the information that the rate of increase in the number of women wage-earners from 1890 to 1900 was greater than the increase of the female population. It is the duty of the individual States to legislate upon the problems presented by the great increase in the number of woman and child workers, but Congress can do a great deal to promote enlightened legislation on the part of the States by authorizing the comprehensive investigation which will do so much to illuminate the whole subject, and for the District of Columbia it may legislate directly.

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The Living Church

The trial of Dr. Crapsey for heresy in the Protestant Episcopal Diocese of Western New York, of which a report is given elsewhere, is of unusual interest. Such trials have been few in the communion to which Dr. Crapsey belongs, and nothing will be decided by this trial except the attitude of the Bishop of Western New York and of the clergymen who constituted the court. Their action will not be binding on the Episcopal Church, the great strength of which lies in the fact that it rests on a few facts and not on a philosophy of those facts. It is for this reason, among others, that the Episcopal Church has made such progress in this country during the last two decades; and if its leaders are wise they will guard the freedom of thought in the Church, not only as an invaluable possession, but as an attitude which appeals more and more strongly to rational religious men.

They must be slow to read the signs of the times who do not see that the Church of Christ is rapidly moving away from the conception of a society of men brought together on a basis of philosophical statement; that it moves steadily toward the conception of that Church as a divine organization, a living company, bearing unbroken testimony, generation after generation, to a few great historical facts, to the life, the death, and the resurrection of a great historical person. Christianity is not a body of doctrine, a system of philosophy, an ecclesiastical order; it is the body of Christ, the constantly renewed form in which his spirit lives and reveals itself. It may take on various ecclesiastical forms, it may frame various creeds, but neither in form nor creed is to be found the secret of its strength, its power, its life. The people of the United States constitute a nation; a living organization of men and women changing from generation to generation, but always remaining an unbroken fellowship. That nation has a constitution and a body of laws which interpret its spirit, define its political ideals, and prescribe its methods of action. But the nation does not live in its constitution nor in its laws. However important these may be, they change from time to time. They are the possession of a great marching host who move forward from decade to decade into new territories of experience, taking on new responsibilities. What is vital and indestructible is the unbroken life of the people, their fundamental ideals, their shaping spirit. They change their constitution from time to time, they are constantly modifying their laws, their courts are interpreting both constitution and laws from fresh points of view and applying them in new ways; but through all these changes the living nation, through its vast organic life expressed in politics, education, art, literature, agriculture, manufactures, remains loyal to its underlying conception of individual freedom, responsibility, and order. The Church of Christ has its creeds, its forms, its methods of administration and of government, and these are of high importance; but they are not the Church. The Church is the unbroken and living fellowship of those who believe in Christ, witnessing in unbroken succession from the time of the Apostles the truth he came to declare, the life he led, the death he died.

Those who are demanding an infallible authority and a final statement of faith, complete in its expression, mathematically exact in definition, to be accepted by all men of all times and races in precisely the same sense, are demanding a complete and finished world, a society in its final forms, a race that has come to the end of its life, touched all points of experience, sounded all depths, climbed all heights, and reached the goal. This is not the divine idea of the world. The very nature of men makes this rigid and literal definiteness impossible. There is no such certainty, and there ought to be no such certainty. The divinest thing about life is its capacity for growth. The universe is not dead matter, as many of our ancestors thought; it is living force, constantly changing its form. The human race is only in the early stages of its great life; it has other experiences to meet, other developments to pass through, higher stages of existence to enter upon. It is still far from the ultimate goal of truth. The eternal and unchangeable things which it pos-

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sesses are its faith in a God of righteousness, intelligence, love, and power; in the revelation of God's nature in the personality of Jesus Christ; in his life, death, and resurrection, and in a divine purpose running through and shaping the whole order of events.

What the nature of God is for purposes of accurate definition no man knows and no church has ever known. The authority of Christ as expressed in terms of his personality no man has ever defined, nor has any church. The manner of his resurrection no man knows, nor does any church. What the Church knows are the facts; the complete and final definition of those facts is quite beyond its present reach, as it ought to be. That is for the clear light of His presence, not for this intermediate period when the race is sitting on the benches of the great school learning the rudimentary lessons of the spiritual life.

The Church of the future, whatever it may call itself, will be based on a few fundamental facts, and must be broad enough to make room for men who hold all possible interpretations of those facts and who desire to worship the Infinite along all natural lines, whether of intellect, of emotion, or of beauty. The United States is founded on certain definite principles, but it is broad enough to include the most radical Democrat, the most radical Republican, the most radical Prohibitionist, the most radical Socialist.

This conception of the Church makes heresy trials impossible. Whether Dr. Crapsey has a right to remain a preacher in the Church and hold the doctrines with which he is accredited, The Outlook does not attempt to decide. That is a matter which rests with Dr. Crapsey's conscience and with the congregation to whom he ministers. Of his purity of life, his profound earnestness, the great interest attaching to his services, there seems to be no question. It is quite possible that he is one of those men who lack the balance, sense of reality, and restraint which ought to be in every pulpit; but these matters are incidental to the great question of the manner in which a so-called heretic shall be treated. Heresy trials have always brought to the front the most offensive and unchristian elements in the Church. There is no authority for them in the New Testament; they are antagonistic to the whole body of Christ's utterances, as they are to his spirit; they have never settled any question; they have always disseminated error instead of exterminating it. They belong to a low type of religious life and to a provincial conception of the Christian Church. That Church ought to be large enough to keep the heretics on the inside. The men who differ from it on certain points, but who are eager to see its work forwarded, ought to remain within its fold even if they take themselves, as they sometimes do, out of its places of teaching. The critical study of the Christian religion in all forms, however radical, ought to be carried on within and not without the Church. The Church has never lost by welcoming truth from every quarter; it has always lost disastrously when, in a spirit of timidity, it has opposed the coming of new truth into the world. The divine method of overcoming error is by the substitution of truth, not by the introduction of the policeman. The Church cannot afford to be narrower than the Nation; it cannot, in an age of freedom, represent the spirit and methods of an age of repression.

What the Church needs and what it presently will have in dealing with the men whom it once cast out for difference of opinion is the spirit of infinite love. The more a man errs, the more tenaciously ought the Church to hold to him; the farther he goes astray, the more devotedly ought it to stretch out its hands to him. No man, under any circumstances, ought to be driven out of the Church. The Church is not for saints; if it were, it would constitute but a handful of men and women. It is for sinners, and sinners it has had in abundance in every age among its popes, archbishops, priests, and ministers of every communion. Measured by the highest standards of character, they have all needed the divine mercy and tenderness; and it is in the spirit of the Christ, who hated iniquity but who sought the sinner with tireless and self-sacrificing devotion and died for men in intellectual and moral

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error, that it has held its doors open to its erring children. The Church will never rise to its opportunity, never reveal itself to the world, never express the spirit of its Master, until it places the trial for heresy with the duel, the gage of battle, and the thumb-screw in the museums of the past. Fearlessness, love, tenderness, and infinite patience are its instruments; not courts and trials and legal arguments.

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The Control of Immigration

Good character, health, thrift, and intelligence are more to be desired than any other imports. The man who brings these qualities with him into this land is more to be welcomed than the man who brings gold. Of bad character, disease, shiftlessness, and stupidity we already have enough in America; and the man who, arriving in an American port from a foreign land, brings these qualities with him is not welcome; he ought to be excluded. The problem of regulating immigration is the problem of separating those incoming aliens who have the qualities we want from those who have the qualities we do not want. The immigrant's material possessions we can measure; but those possessions of his which have most significance to us we can only estimate. The best we can do is to select certain tests and declare that those who stand these tests we shall take the risk of accepting on the probability that they have the qualities we want—and all the others we shall reject.

This is in practice what we attempt to do. A person with a criminal record we reject as failing in the test for good character; a person with any one of a specified list of diseases or disabilities we reject as failing in the test for good health; a person who cannot indicate some means by which he will be self-supporting is rejected as failing in the test for thrift; and a person who in specified ways shows that he is mentally incompetent is rejected as failing in the test for intelligence.

In spite of these tests, the depraved, the diseased, the shiftless, and the stupid continue to enter the United States. There are two methods of remedy. One is that of making the tests more stringent; the other is by improving the machinery by which the tests are applied. The Outlook believes that both methods should be used.

The method of stiffening the regulations is adopted by two bills now before Congress. By them thrift and intelligence are more strictly tested. The head tax is raised from two to five dollars; and every immigrant is required to show that he possesses a certain amount of money—the amount graded by sex, age, and family responsibility. Each immigrant of a certain age or over is required to show that he can read some language. It cannot be disputed that these tests for thrift and intelligence are far from accurate; but tests of this sort, though absolutely necessary, are at best only approximate.

The second method, that of improving the machinery of examination, The Outlook regards as still more important. It is of little advantage to increase the number of tests if the machinery is inadequate for the tests required at present. And that machinery will remain inadequate as long as it is practically confined to the limits of one port where the immigrants are concentrated as at the small end of a funnel. In another column Mr. Ogg points out the necessity for making the examination before the various immigrant processions are united in one enormous mass. Examination at the ports of embarkation is advocated by the Commissioner-General of Immigration. Upon this will, we believe, wait almost all other reforms. The distribution of immigrants (to encourage which one bill now before Congress would establish a bureau of information), the holding of steamship companies to stricter account, the establishment of clearer understanding with foreign countries on a subject which, in the form of emigration, is in many cases quite as important to them as to us, and the more efficient discrimination between the desirable and the undesirable, will all be promoted by examination abroad.

The United States wants the right

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kind of immigrants; but the United States ought not to let the steamship companies and the padrones decide what kind is the right kind. If the Nation, rather than commercial organizations, is to determine the quality of immigration, and therefore its own future character, it must first renovate its immigration machinery and then apply it more stringently.

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Mr. James and English Speech

The movement to discard useless letters from English words and to reform the dissolute and irresponsible spelling of a highly respectable language deserves cordial support and is certain to make its way; but it looks now as if the friends of English, putting aside for the time minor reforms, would be compelled to rally to the support of the language itself. The mother tongue is threatened with a paralysis of its normal functions; it is passing out of the possession of the "great middle class" who use it as a means of communicating their commonplace thoughts and experiences, and falling into the hands of experts, who are making it an esoteric dialect for the use of a small body of initiates. The loss of a language is a serious business; and in this case it is peculiarly serious because English is in such general use in all parts of the world. If to this loss is added the necessity of learning another form of human speech, the magnitude of the injury done to English-speaking peoples by these ruthless fanatics, to whom nothing is sacred until it becomes unintelligible, is apparent.

It has been said that if the Romans had been compelled to learn their own language, they would never have had time to conquer the world; and a witty Englishman declared that the highest success of the teaching of Greek and Latin in the public schools of England was to convince the boys that there are such languages. The backs of modern boys and girls already bend under the loads of knowledge which they are compelled to carry by the demands of college entrance examinations, and these burdens are likely to increase rather than diminish. The East and the West are coming into intimate relations, and the time is not distant when the groaning boy and sighing girl will sit up at night over Hindustani, Persian, and Arabic grammars. The facility of the Russians as linguists is popularly explained by the fact that their own language is so difficult that all other languages are easy to them; and it may occur to the schoolmasters of the future that the best discipline for the youth who are to learn all the modern languages will be a preliminary course in Russian by way of general preparation.

At this critical moment in linguistic development comes Mr. Henry James, fresh from prolonged contact with the sources of Culture, and proposes to substitute for our mother tongue a kind of speech which can be described only by itself. It has often been said that art is never a matter of material but always a matter of manner; and Mr. Henry James has demonstrated the truth of this general principle beyond all questioning. Here, by way of illustration, are some recent remarks of his in the "North American Review" on the subject of American teeth:

> I remember to have heard it remarked by a French friend, of a young woman who had returned to her native land after some years of domestic service in America, that she had acquired there, with other advantages, *le sourire Californien*, and the "Californian" smile, indeed, expressed, more or less copiously, in undissimulated cubes of the precious metal, plays between lips that render scant other tribute to civilization. The greater interest, in this connection, however, is that impression of the state and appearance of the teeth viewed among the "refined" as supremely important, which the restored absentee, long surrounded elsewhere with the strangest cynicisms of indifference on this article, makes the subject of one of his very first notes. Every one, in "society," has good, handsome, pretty, has above all cherished and tended, teeth; so that the offered spectacle, frequent in other societies, of strange irregularities, protrusions, deficiencies, fangs and tusks and cavities, is quite refreshingly and consolingly absent. The consequences of care and forethought, from an early age, thus write themselves on the facial page distinctly and happily, and it is not too much to say that the total show is, among American aspects, cumulatively charming. One sees it sometimes balance, for charm, against a greater number of other felicitous items, in

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that totality, than one would quite know where to begin naming.

Railroads are difficult to regulate; even President Roosevelt's prodigious vitality has been taxed to the utmost by the endeavor to secure a system of rates which the public can understand. In the very crisis of the discussion of this perplexing question, and while the Titans of the Senate are hurling Pelions and Ossas at one another with reckless disregard of consequences, Mr. James has seen fit to make a few remarks on the Pennsylvania Railroad, so subtle as to disconcert and perplex even those statesmen who have arrived at greatness by a use of language always suggestive of the presence of thought but never actually disclosing it. Accustomed as they are to saying what they do not mean and meaning what they do not say, we venture the prediction that they will find their match in Mr. James in these remarkable words from the "North American Review:"

I had occasion repeatedly to find the Pennsylvania Railroad a beguiling and predisposing influence—in relation to various objectives; and, indeed, I quite lost myself in the singularity of this effect, which existed for me certainly only in that connection, touching me with a strange and most agreeable sense that the great line in question, an institution with a style and *allure* of its own, is not, even the world over, as other railroads are. It absolutely, with a little frequentation, affected me as better and higher than its office or function, and almost as supplying one with a mode of life intrinsically superior.

Not many months ago Mr. James was uttering words of wisdom to the graduating class at one of the foremost colleges for women concerning the slovenly and vulgar use of English in this country. There was, unfortunately, too much ground for his severe criticism of English as it is spoken by many Americans. But what shall be said of English as it written by this American? It can hardly be true that the author of "The Passionate Pilgrim" and those other charming tales which beguiled our youth and made us sure that another master of the art of writing had appeared has become, as an eminent man of letters has recently said, "the worst writer of English, living or dead." It is more charitable to assume that Mr. James, who loves the exclusive, the recondite, the esoteric, the secondary meaning of things, is bent on converting our dear familiar English into a learned dialect; changing its ancient poetry into modern psychological prose and denuding it of art in the interest of "pure scholarship." Has Mr. James considered the possible influence of his example on the unlearned! If not, let him reflect on the full significance of this reproduction of his latest style by an unlettered reporter in a Western newspaper:

TOLD ALL IN ONE SENTENCE

Doll Faulkner was the victim of quite a serious accident yesterday evening, while riding a bicycle out to his brother Tom's home in the southeast part of the city, as a result of the breaking of the frame near the front wheel, pitching Doll headlong to the ground, striking upon his face, which was cut and bruised in a most frightful manner, chief of which was a terrible gash clear across his forehead, while the nose, mouth, and chin were badly cut.

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The Situation in France

The reports of impending revolution which have been coming from Europe during the past two weeks have borne evidence of sensational origin. The world is still in the habit of thinking of Paris as a volcano and of expecting explosions at short intervals; it does not make sufficient allowance for a generation of training in self-government. After many vicissitudes and a tragic history, France has now been in school for thirty-five years, and the results of its training have been manifest in the steadiness with which the country has gone through crises which in the old days would have let loose torrents of eloquence and uncontrolled passion. More than once in the last decade the French people have met grave crises with a restraint and calmness which have been the very best evidence that the country as a whole is rapidly fitting itself into republican forms of government, and that the people and their political institutions are daily becoming more vitally related.

The present troubles, which are industrial in their origin, or at least in their occasion, began in the north of France, where forty thousand miners are now

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striking. If reports are to be trusted, the mines have enjoyed great prosperity; so great that the workmen ought to have shared in that prosperity by an increase of wages several years ago. Their demands were not met in a conciliatory or fair-minded way; and at the moment when discontent began to pass into bitterness, there came the terrible disaster at Courrières, reported in these columns. The extraordinary indifference shown by the mine-owners in their attempts to extricate the imprisoned miners stirred discontent into fury. Later investigations brought out the fact that in some of the mines ordinary appliances for safety were not provided, and that the operators in a time of great prosperity had been criminally neglectful of the safety of their employees. This disaster gave a dramatic aspect to the situation and made it possible for demagogues and agitators from Paris to lead the miners on in acts of lawlessness.

The accession of M. Clemenceau to the Cabinet as Minister of the Interior had given the working classes throughout France the feeling that affairs were very much in their own hands; for the new Minister has long been a leader of the Radical section. Born in Vendée in 1841, educated at Nantes, after a residence of several years in Paris M. Clemenceau came to this country, lived here for four years, returned to Paris, was elected Mayor of Montmartre, one of the most radical divisions of Paris, when the Republic was proclaimed, afterwards to the National Assembly, and entered the Chamber of Deputies in 1876. As Mayor, Deputy, and editor of "L'Aurore," a Radical journal, M. Clemenceau had long been regarded as one of the foremost exponents of extreme Radicalism, and as a leader among the workingmen. He made an endeavor, by personal intervention, to settle the differences between the operators and the miners, visiting the mining section and trying to persuade the strikers to accept the conditions offered them and return to work. The miners, infuriated by what they believed to have been gross disregard of their safety and culpable indifference to the fate of the men entombed in the mine at Courrières, were ripe for mischief, and agitators who came from Paris were quick to see the opportunity of changing a strike into an insurrection. Then began a series of outrages upon persons and property; and, if reports are to be trusted, forty thousand men were practically in arms against the Government. Troops were promptly sent to the scene of disorder, first in small, then in larger, numbers. They were ordered on no account to use their arms, but passively to defend public buildings and mines, and to endeavor by their presence to overawe the miners. The latter understood the situation, and acts of violence were redoubled in number and fierceness. Public buildings, railway and telegraph lines, and mining property of all sorts were destroyed, and the looting of shops and burning of houses began. The troops were attacked in the street and were not allowed to defend themselves. Three thousand rioters made an attack on the town of Haveluy in order to release certain prisoners who had been taken by the troops. An attempt was made by light cavalry to check their attack, but the cavalry were overwhelmed with showers of stones, several were unhorsed, and the crowd entered the village triumphantly, singing "Insurgé," a song which has recently become popular among the revolutionists. The houses occupied by men who were still working were wrecked, defensive barricades were thrown up in the streets, and when two additional squadrons of cuirassiers arrived they were received with showers of bricks and broken bottles, while they sat passively on their horses, unable to deploy in the narrow street. The fight lasted an hour. Again and again the soldiers charged in vain, and the troops were finally forced to retire amid the shouts of the victorious insurgents. This outbreak of disorder in the north, met with vacillation and weakness by the Government, encouraged strikes in other parts of the country, and more disorder is reported at Brest, Toulon, and other seaports. There has been an attempt on the part of the leaders of the Confederation of Labor to organize a universal strike, to begin in Paris on Wednesday of this week. M. Clemenceau, who has been sharply criti-

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cised for lack of decision in dealing with these serious disorders, has lost influence with his own section, while many conservative Republicans have feared that his parleying with violence and disorder would lead to the shedding of blood on a large scale.

During the last week the Government has taken the offensive in dealing with the crisis. In Paris a small army has been concentrated, and elaborate plans made for the location of troops at the points of greatest danger to overawe the mobs and to make any serious outbreak impossible.

The situation is complicated by the fact that a general election will begin on Sunday next, and the Government has shown great unwillingness to bring on a crisis on the very eve of an election. If there were a leader about whom all the disaffected elements could rally, the dangers of a *coup d'état* and an overthrow of the Republic might be serious; for to a very considerable number of men in Paris and in the provinces who are ready at all times to overthrow the existing order, and the very much larger group of workingmen who are excited and to a certain extent infuriated by recent occurrences, must be added the adherents of the Bonapartist cause and of the Loyalist cause, and a very considerable body of religious people whose profoundest convictions have been gravely disturbed, not so much by the separation of State from Church as by the drastic manner in which that separation has been carried out. There undoubtedly exist at the moment elements of disaffection with the Government, but there is no man on the scene capable of organizing these elements and of combining them together into one vigorous and effective movement. M. Clemenceau might have been such a leader, but, for the first time after many years of vigorous and often bitter opposition, he is committed to the present political order. The proletariat would like a revolution; it is always in favor of destroying the existing order; the Bonapartists and Loyalists would welcome any change as affording a possibility of establishing either the Empire or the Monarchy; but the great mass of the working people are not radicals in the destructive sense; they are republicans at heart, and it is difficult to believe that they will be short-sighted enough to endeavor to pull down institutions which are more and more representative of their spirit and their political ideals.

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The Spectator

The Spectator has had his share of unusual experiences, but the one which came to him in the early morning hours of the 18th of April was absolutely novel. The time was fourteen minutes and forty-eight seconds after five (this is hearsay, as the Spectator did not meet the experience watch in hand); the place was Oakland, California, largest and most thriving of all of San Francisco's suburbs.

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To awake from a pleasant dream into a swaying, roaring world gives one a complete sensation of utter helplessness. A man's first thought in danger, if his family are in it too, is usually how to save his wife and children. Here, as soon as one realized that an earthquake had come, there was absolutely nothing to do. The chandelier would surely fall (the Spectator remembers remarking, "Cover up your head"); would the ceiling come too, and the roof? And how about the side walls? There was the sensation of a mighty wind blowing against the house in every direction, a noise of rattling panes, falling chimneys, creaking furniture, pictures slamming back against the wall. Some of the young men of the family who had risen early and gone out shooting said that the hills moved about, the trees bowed down as if a great wind was passing over them, and then rose up and shook like feather dusters. There was a rumble which made the young men think that a dynamite explosion had occurred near by.

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And it kept up so! The duration of the shock was about as long as it would take to count six slowly. The Spectator, being of an optimistic nature, felt as each second passed that things would improve; but the tendency seemed quite

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the other way. The motion and the tumult increased as the moments went by. It was over at last, and the household gathered itself together to take account of stock. Upstairs but little damage was done—a few vases and knickknacks broken; downstairs a heavy marble clock lay smashed on the hearth, nearly every vase was in pieces on the floor, and the china-closet was a sad sight. One chimney had crashed through the roof and was lying in the attic, and two others were on the ground. Two persons had barely escaped with their lives from under a falling bookcase. A doctor was needed, and as the telephone had been put out of commission, the Spectator went after him.

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In the street on every hand were frightened people coming out of their houses. The tower of a church near by was lying across the road. A house that had stood on a fragile foundation of light beams had dropped eight feet, with all the people in it and nobody hurt. Not a chimney could be seen on any roof—only a pile of broken brick on the lawn or across the sidewalk. As the Spectator approached the business district, the damage grew. There was a crowd around a flimsy structure which had been a cheap theater; in it five people had been crushed to death as they slept.

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One became quite accustomed to shocks as the day went by. The scientists report a number of them, but the Spectator noted only four, and he is not sure that some of these were not the result of dynamiting buildings in San Francisco. Whatever the cause, the effect was disquieting, not because the shocks were serious, but because one never knew whether they were going to increase or decrease. The optimism of the early morning had received a setback. A very little more of that first big shock and most of the walls of Oakland would have fallen, as they fell at San José and Santa Rosa. A few nights before the Spectator had slept in a hotel at Santa Rosa where the walls were of some fancifully stamped tin tacked to light beams. One can imagine what happened when the earthquake came.

The experiences of many of those who passed through the awful fire which raged for two days across the bay have been read from end to end of the country. Although no passengers were carried over to San Francisco by the ferries, a steam launch took a few of us across on the day after the earthquake. Landing in the lower part of the city, which the fire had swept through the day before, one was reminded of Pompeii. It was a city of the dead. No guards were there, and sometimes no people were met for several blocks. It was difficult to find one's way about, for buildings which had been landmarks were completely obliterated. Up yonder street that smoking ruin with its twisted columns had been a well-appointed club where on Monday a touch of the bell had brought a man in livery to take the Spectator's order. That tall granite shell, gutted now, but still standing plumb in its skeleton outline, was the "Call" building, in whose restaurant on the top floor the Spectator had lunched the day before the earthquake and looked out on the fair city lying in the brilliant sunshine, encircled by green hills. Prosperity and growth were apparent on every hand. The steel skeleton of an annex to the St. Francis Hotel was level with the roof. The beautiful marble Fairmount gleamed white on the brow of the hill. The greatest opera season San Francisco had ever known was just beginning; more than $100,000 worth of tickets had been sold in advance. The night before Caruso had sung to a crowded house—the night after he slept in Golden Gate Park, driven forth from his hotel by the advancing fire, and the chorus camped out in Oakland.

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The present generation of people on the Pacific Coast had forgotten about earthquakes. They had relegated them to the days of stage-coaches and the old Missions. But Mother Earth has a way of continuing her customs regardless of the atoms which build their tiny towering nests upon her surface. San Francisco will rise again and will be a city of beauty—which she was not before the fire—but the builders will keep the possibility of earthquakes more in mind.

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THE PANAMA CANAL

BY JOHN FOSTER CARR

Second Paper

The Commission's White Workers

FOR six weeks I have been living with our workers on the Isthmus. By a striking contrast in human nature, some first impressions of them are indelibly permanent. You see the Panamanians idling out of windows and in the shade of doorways watching our driving work. They are thin, slow-moving, impassive, often solemn. There is no glow in the dead yellows and browns of their flesh. But when you look at our engineers, mechanics, and foremen, you see full-blooded health shining in their faces. They are boisterous, hard-working, ingenious, quick to lay hold of a pick or drive a spike, to show how it should be done. Their good humor is almost unfailing, but it never enfeebles the sharp word of command, as the dull Jamaicans have learned.

They are all Americans, but they are not ordinary Americans. In their feverish energy they are too masterful, too restless, too fond of adventure, too willing to take the adventurer's chances to make money. At first they seemed too much like Mr. Choate's Elizabethan Englishman, who had some modern Yankee improvements, to be good canal-builders. They seemed to be all inveterate rolling stones, for never, except in the officers' mess on a war-ship, had I met so many men together who had jogged so widely over the world. But I soon learned that the day of the good-for-nothing tropical tramp had nearly passed, and that the blustering, restless energy which I had noted was of such a temper that it could be profitably harnessed to the hard work of the Canal, and prove the very motive power we need. It was such men, as an engineer from the Mississippi Bottoms said to me—restless men and "cranks," roving pioneers, inventors, and Puritans—who had built up our country.

I seemed to be forever in a hive of work, and I was curious to know if somewhere there were to be found no political drones. I had heard in Washington that nearly eight hundred circular-letters of information were despatched weekly to inquirers about the service on the Isthmus. In all this competition for places it seemed as if political influence must often be unfairly used. But I could learn of none, though I asked many Senators and Representatives, both friends and accusers of the Commission. "Political Hands Off!" appeared to be the general policy in Canal matters. I had the liberty of examining the files of applicants, and saw that many of them had political backing. This advantaged a man as a reference would, the appointment clerk said, and occasionally, but rarely—he was positive about this—gave precedence in order of appointment. The net result of all

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my questioning was the discovery that a single clerk had been transferred from one department to another "by request."

In the Zone gossip of all kinds is rife. Everybody deplores it as earnestly as old-fashioned spinsters over their tea. The popular Isthmian poet prays to be delivered from "the general animus." And you hear a great deal of political appointments. One man will speak of them with a smile, another with a sneer, another will grow as mutinous and vituperative in his talk as a French infantryman. I have been at some pains to investigate the definite complaints I have heard, and I set down the facts as I found them.

There is, first of all, the Panama joke of the "man from Nebraska." It concerns some seventeen individuals, the method of whose appointment to positions in two or three departments was precisely that of the affiliated departments at home. Even Panama gossip does not claim that a single one of them is inefficient, or that a single one is overpaid.

For several stories there appeared to be no foundation of truth whatever. In three or four cases political influence was simple favoritism and nothing more. One report alone I found to be true. It was known by many men, and was repeated, as my investigation proved, with substantial accuracy. It was about a clerk in the printing supply room who came to the Isthmus in February, 1905, at a salary of $2,500. On the same payroll on which his name first appeared his superior's salary stood at $1,200, and this, by merit, has since been advanced to $2,400—still to-day $100 below that of the subordinate. To the credit of the new Commission, I must state that the injustice of this arrangement has been objected to, but after correspondence a reduction of salary was prevented by some "man higher up."

This is a summary of all the facts tending to show political influence in the conduct of affairs on the Isthmus that I have been able to gather. And there is the other side. I have heard no tale of scandal connected with the Engineering or the Sanitary Department. I asked Mr. Stevens about political appointments. With vigorous emphasis he told me that he had never tolerated interference from any one in the selection of his men, and that no one of them could hold his position for a day except by merit. Colonel Gorgas denies that he has ever been approached by the politician. The new Commission has barely been in power a year, but the drift of things under its rule is unmistakable. In Washington I saw the claims of many men, which were urged by powerful politicians, refused on the ground that the positions desired were filled by promotion. There is the long list of men, ranking from clerks to engineers, who have been discharged for inefficiency in spite of political backing. And there is the story of recent appointments. Take the Department of Labor and Quarters: A laborer, a $50 a month man, by faithful, intelligent work has become a superintendent; in less than a year a clerk has been promoted to the position of chief timekeeper; the chief clerk came to the Isthmus as a typewriter. A former copy clerk is now the assistant chief clerk of "Material and Supplies." A Sanitary Inspector of the lower grade has been advanced until he is Assistant Chief. Most marked sign of all, a simple clerk and stenographer, one H. D. Reed, by the mere record of his merit has risen rank by rank to the station of Acting Governor.

Practical freedom from politics has given a healthy tone to the organization, which I see reflected in the men themselves. They have distinctive virtues as a body that are easily accounted for. Most of them are plucky, for it took pluck to come to the Isthmus and stay when yellow fever was in the land. They are mostly decent, healthy fellows, for the climate is severe on all vices of over-indulgence in a northerner. Of those who will not heed the warning many are invalided home; a certain number die. Something like a real moral selection is the result. There is not a house of gambling or of prostitution in the Zone, and but little of either dissipation in the two cities. The "bad man" is unknown. Drunkenness is rare either among the blacks or whites. One night last month, after $70,000 had been

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paid out in Culebra Cut, Captain Shanton, of the police, tells me that his men made but a single arrest for intoxication. As I write, the penitentiary contains only two white Americans; the jail has one, charged with "disorderly conduct." This high average of decency has another explanation. Salaries on the Isthmus are from forty to fifty per cent. higher than at home, and men have come here, not in self-sacrificing patriotism to build a canal, but with the very practical and creditable purpose of saving money and sending it to their families. Two banks are finding it profitable to establish branches at every station along the line. I asked the four principal bankers of Panama to estimate the proportion of wages laid by or remitted to the United States. No one of them named less than fifty per cent. of the total salaries—one was as high as eighty per cent. The result of personal questioning of twenty men—clerks, mechanics, and stenographers—showed that they were sending nearly two-thirds of their wages home.

In lodging and food the employees fare well. They have suffered some inconveniences. Things went at sixes and sevens for a very long while. Promised furniture did not come; the butter gave out; they had to use a pail for a wash-bowl. For months in some places it was like "moving day" at home. But I cannot find that any one had actual hardships to suffer except the uncomplaining engineers who had to hew and hack their way through the jungle, and sleep and eat in a swamp. To-day there is comfort in the quarters and the food is good. I have eaten at all but two of the Commission's hotels. The mess at Cristobal is better than the one at La Boca. Empire is best of all. Yet I found little difference between them, and little difference whether I went alone or dined with an official. With one or two exceptions, the thirty-cent meal was as good as could be had in Panama for twice the money. It is true that the coffee was sometimes poor and the fresh-killed meat sometimes tough, as it is in the best hotel on the Isthmus. Still, the meal was good; for a comparison, I should say an excellent boarding-house average.

I said that we were creating a State as well as building a canal. The way of it has been artificial, and the influx of newcomers so rapid—the number of the Commission's employees grew from 3,500 to 17,000 within a year—that normal human society has been slow in organizing. Caring nothing for the exhausting heat, the men put the dash of the North into their work, and when night came, and it comes soon after six all the year round, they were too tired even to talk. They sat about silently and went to bed by nine o'clock. On Sunday there was nothing to do. There was nowhere to go, because the jungle hemmed them in as if it were a thousand leagues of ocean. The grass under the trees was full of the maddening red-bugs. One and all they despised the cock-fights and the petty gambling in *keno* of the negroid natives, whom they soon contemptuously dubbed "Spiggoty"—(from "Spick Inglish." They are entirely innocent of English, and "Spiggoty" is a kind of *non sequitur* joke). There was nothing of interest to be seen except in the city of Panama, and so they generally spent the day, as some still do, on the hotel verandas, smoking, lazily watching the vultures floating high up in the air, "talking shop," and telling tales of Cuba and the Philippines, where scores of them have been. But the last six months have seen a great change. New habits are forming and life is rapidly approaching the normal. No longer fearing disease, men are bringing their wives and children, not to stay six months or a year, but indefinitely—"until the whole work is done," one of them told me. The children are now receiving full primary instruction, and the Supervisor is already facing the need of grammar schools and high schools.

In revolt against tropical lethargy, the single men are at last finding themselves. There is now hardly a station on the railroad but has a baseball nine; the champion team is at Corozal. "Red Men" are organizing, social clubs are forming. The Commission is building club-houses and furnishing billiard-rooms. During the last week I have attended a St. Patrick's Day smoking concert at the

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Cristobal Club and a musicale at the Panama Young Men's Christian Association. There was a crowd of ladies to clap delightedly for the games and sports at Bas Obispo on Washington's Birthday; and for the minstrel show given by the Marines half of the first six rows of the audience were filled with American women. Sunday has become a day of recreation, and there are now fishing, boating, and picnicking up the Chagres and to Taboga and Porto Bello.

As work settles into routine the whole great undertaking comes to look to the men more and more like a very ordinary, matter-of-fact "business proposition." But less than a year ago these same dusty, sweating, every-day toilers developed the heroic and saved the whole force from disorganization. The terror of yellow fever returning, as it seemed, with a new virulence paralyzed the energies of field and office men. The number of seizures increased; the bubonic plague appeared at La Boca; the Chief Engineer resigned like a general deserting on the field of battle. Terror changed into the wildest panic fear. Men and women could think and talk of nothing but the fever. An old engineer says it settled like an obsession over his mess. At dinner a calm man, unused to oaths, swore "by the living God" that he would not eat with them if yellow fever were ever again mentioned. Twenty-one cases of fever were taken from the Administration building in ten days. Panic fear took the form of hysteria. Men came to work with packed dress-suit cases, and the head of one of the departments has told me how, when it was announced in the office that one of his clerks had just been carried to the hospital, a stenographer rose from his chair excitedly and shrieked, "I want you to understand now that if Taber dies, I'm going home!" North-bound ships were crowded to the rails by men who were happy if they could only get standing room on deck. But the sanitary work had been exceedingly well done. The epidemic was held in check from the very first; the danger passed, and, all told, only twenty employees of the Commission died; but men who could face the horror of such a panic have more than battle courage, and we need men of pluck to carry through this greatest mechanical task that human beings have yet attempted.

Like army, like officers. The general character and ability in responsible men is high. They put conscience and zest into their duties, and a high average of efficient work results. Serious incompetency in the past has produced serious errors. Some of them are justly charged to the Walker Commission. The attempt to direct the work from Washington has caused many a muddle. National impatience to have the dirt fly has been a constant handicap. The mistakes made on the ground are not easily classified. Some have come from the experimental nature of a large part of the work; and for a long time yet many must be made for the same reason. Then there has been the red-tape. To some of those with whom I have talked it has seemed at times to threaten the whole work, as the serpents strangled Laocoön and his sons. Even worse than the contagious passion for filing cabinets and reduplicated reports, that spread from the Auditor's office, has been a lack of what college athletes call "team work." Our National versatility, which in a twinkling turns a genius of a lawyer into an adroit diplomat, is not so successful when an ordinary layman usurps a doctor's place, or an army purchasing agent sits in judgment on a postmaster's requisition. And, by no means the least of all, there is the policy of conciliation towards the Panamanians, which admits no alternative between the political folly of annexation and the expensive and hampering method of yielding rights which should be jealously guarded; so vital a thing is it thought to be to keep the testy little republic in good humor.

These seem to be the main, the characteristic, mistakes and difficulties. They will all find illustration in these articles, for only the story of the way in which they are being met and overcome will reveal the general tendency of things to-day. And that is the important matter.

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THE DREAD OF A STRIKE

BY PETER ROBERTS

Readers of The Outlook will remember Mr. Roberts as the author of articles on the life and conditions of labor in the anthracite coal region published in The Outlook at the time of the great strike three years ago. Mr. Roberts was one of the most important and interesting witnesses before the Anthracite Coal Commission appointed by President Roosevelt. In his pastoral work as a minister in the coal districts of Pennsylvania he has had ample opportunities for studying the subject and the people close at hand, and what he says carries weight and force.—THE EDITORS.

THE pastor of one of the leading Protestant churches of Hazleton, holding special services during Passion Week, prayed that the Lord would avert in some possible manner the strike which threatened the anthracite regions. This instance is symbolic. The strike of 1902, its terrors and sufferings, its lawlessness and enmities, is still green in the memories of men, and the prayer of the sober-minded and industrious citizens of these communities is, "Lord, save us from a strike!"

We are not yet in the throes of an industrial conflict, but we are in the third week of a suspension. In mining towns all is quiet, but before the general shutdown came, the dread of the controversy now going on cast its shadow for months previous to April 1 upon our commercial, social, and industrial activity. A commercial agent came to Mahanoy in February last to do business. His experience had been that the coal fields were choice territory to work in. He said on this occasion, "I'll jump the town tomorrow. I must get out of the coal fields." The business men have felt that it has been difficult to do business during the current year for the reason that the people are holding back their money. Wholesale houses in the last three months have felt the retrenchment by a falling off of from fifteen to twenty per cent. in their business as compared with the first quarter of 1905. "Drummers" have for the last few months said, "There's nothing doing," and the hotel registers show how they keep away. A leading merchant in Shenandoah ordered his supply of carpets for the spring trade with a "strike clause" in the contract. I noticed the shelves in a grocer's store growing empty of late. When I casually called the attention of the proprietor to it, he said, "I can't refuse to sell if the goods are in sight, and I don't want to be ruined." Another grocer said, "I'd give two hundred dollars this moment if those men in New York came to a settlement." All through the anthracite coal fields it is the same, and it is reasonable to believe that the commercial interests in the bituminous regions were similarly affected. The business channels along which flowed the necessities, comforts, and luxuries of two million people were disturbed because of the shadow of a possible industrial conflict. Families cut down their expenses, men were anxious to lay aside a few dollars, women denied themselves and their children the little extras which enter into their lives, for they dreaded the day of calamity when the cry of hunger may be heard in the streets of mining towns.

Heads of families do something more than cut down expenses. They erect barriers against the impending calamity. A mother told me last week, "I'm glad my boys are out of this town—the strike makes boys bad." Three of her sons are from home, and although her soul often yearns for them, still she was glad they were gone. A father of six children said last year, "I'll never send my girls to the factory." Two of them today work there, and the youngest is just fourteen years—a bright little girl and rather delicate. Many factory plants, depending for their labor supply upon young boys and girls, have, in the last decade, been erected in the coal fields. Under normal conditions they can hardly get an adequate supply of labor; to-day they can select from a glutted labor

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market. The dread of want makes of tender children breadwinners. Many parents speak of the great help the factories rendered in the strike of 1902, and scores of children this spring have entered these plants, as men seek shelter from a rising storm. Domestic help has been scarce in mining towns for the past three years; just now help can be easily secured, and parents are anxious to place their girls in service. I know a home where the fourth daughter went lately to the city, leaving the care of the house to a widowed father and a little girl not yet in her teens. Few men have any idea how these industrial cataclysms affect the workingmen's families. When economic pressure comes upon the home, factory laws, home ties, the peril of a great city, must give way. "All that a man hath will he give for his life." The dread of want lays the most sacred ties upon the altar, and nerves sensitive youths to face perils which they naturally dread.

The effect upon industrial relations is not less serious. A strike divides communities and makes of lifelong friends unrelenting foes. Men have, for the last few weeks, been lining up on the one or the other side of the conflicting interests involved in the controversy. Men in charge of anthracite collieries want to find out "where they're at." They want to know who are their friends and who will "stand by them." Hence every class of employees likely to aid the companies in case of a strike have been approached and sounded. They want to know where the men stand. Superintendents and foremen, assistant foremen and fire-bosses, mechanics and clerks, engineers and firemen, pump-runners and coal inspectors, have all been working since the suspension. They number more than 12,000 men, and comprise the rank and file of skilled labor who run these collieries and keep the delicate and complicated machinery in and around the mines in repair. All these men, during the last two weeks, have been tested. "Decision day" has come into their lives, and the ranks of the idle have in the last week been swelled. I saw a letter, a few days ago, from the head of one of the departments of the Philadelphia and Reading Coal and Iron Company asking an employee "what he was going to do." The man hesitated to go to work even during this suspension, but a wife and three children helped him to decide, and he now works. Not a man in this army of 12,000 men is turned away by the companies if he chooses to work, for in case of actual hostilities they want their aid. Many of these men have "good jobs," for which they waited many years, and their "yes" or "no" in the present crisis means their living. Others have not so much at stake—they are young men with a trade which they can ply elsewhere. The Reading Company has in the last week been building "barracks" at its collieries, and the test in scores of cases came in this work. Carpenters, coal inspectors, subordinate foremen, were ordered to build these "bunk shanties." Scores of the men said "no" and went home. One of these men told me, "My conscience wouldn't allow me to build a scab shanty." Another said, "I'd live on potato peelings before I'd do it." Still another said, "My good name is more to me than that job." They were willing to do any work around the colliery, but they could not build "bunk shanties." Many mine workers have also been sounded. Some washeries are working and some coal is mined, but of the 140,000 mine workers few men and boys have been found willing to work. Most of the work that is being done in preparing coal for market is executed by men in the above-mentioned classes of employees. The vast army of mine workers is idle. The men are loyal to their union and place implicit confidence in their leader. Hundreds in the ranks of those possessing technical skill have cast their lot with their fellow-men in the conflict. They were offered protection, but no inducement could enlist their aid on the side of capital. Many of them are heads of families, but they dread the name of "scab" more than they dread privation and want.

And those men who now work, although a strike has not been declared, are objects of suspicion. The mine workers well know that the companies

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are trying to enlist these men on their side. Those among them who worked during the strike of 1902 are distinctly classified as "enemies." What mine workers fear, however, is that others who still labor may be induced to keep on even if a strike is declared. Thus, while the controversy is pending, the sentiments of conflict are smoldering in the bosoms of hundreds of men. They are anxious for their cause, and the fear of disloyalty in the rank of wage-earners preys upon their feelings. Thus, mechanics and clerks, engineers and firemen, pump-runners and fire-bosses, are uneasy. No positive interferences have occurred, but the air is full of explosive material that may in a day burst upon us. The mine workers dread traitors to the cause of labor, and they are sensitive to the slightest sign of disloyalty. It is often said that the sentries of two hostile armies exchange courtesies the night before they engage in deadly conflict. That was done in the Civil War, when brother fought against brother in a cause that appealed to the humanity of the humblest soldier in the Federal army. In an industrial conflict it is different. Here there is no parley or exchange of courtesies among the outposts. The line of cleavage is pronounced. They ask for no quarter and give none. It is class conflict, and strikes deeper into the lives of these thousands of wage-earners, who demand an advance in wages and improved conditions of employment, than any other interest. Their antagonistic sentiments are raised to the highest pitch of excitement. Each workman feels it is his personal quarrel, and in each breast there are kindled feelings of hatred and enmity against all arrayed on the side of the capitalists. The dread of a strike crystallizes this class feeling. It disturbs our communities, confuses our social relations, divides and scatters our families, and thrusts into the industry a disturbing element that will interfere with the production of the collieries.

These, however, are simple premonitions of the strike. Should the storm break, these losses, anxieties, and divisions will pale into insignificance before the incoming flood of passion and fury. The Hon. Wayne MacVeagh said before the Coal Strike Commission that the anthracite coal communities had, in the strike of 1902, "a foretaste of hell." It was a strong expression, but conservative men said "it was so." Let us remember that 140,000 men and boys were cut off from the means of their subsistence and that they fought for what they deemed to be their life and happiness, and the storm of passion and fury is explained. Privation and hunger drove these men to excess, and, while they cannot be exonerated, is it not time for intelligent and patriotic men to find a way that will make even the dread of a strike an impossibility in our civilization? Somebody is responsible for setting in motion this sea of passion. The responsibility should be fixed. If it is inherent in our industrial system, the sooner we change it the better. War is a disgrace to our civilization, and a strike is war. Whatever be the cost of compulsory investigation and arbitration, it is not so great as the disturbance of social and moral values which an industrial conflict occasions. The men who live amid the fury of the tempest know best what a strike means, and their cry is, "Lord, save us from a strike!"

THE WATER OF LIFE

BY PRISCILLA LEONARD

Since time began, man's shaping hand has brought
  Unnumbered vessels to the river's side,
Each cup, each pitcher, formed with anxious thought,
  Each bearer with no other satisfied;
Along the banks the broken fragments lie,
  Yet still the stream flows infinite and free.
Man's vessels break—man's longing, thirsty cry
  Is answered here, and evermore shall be.

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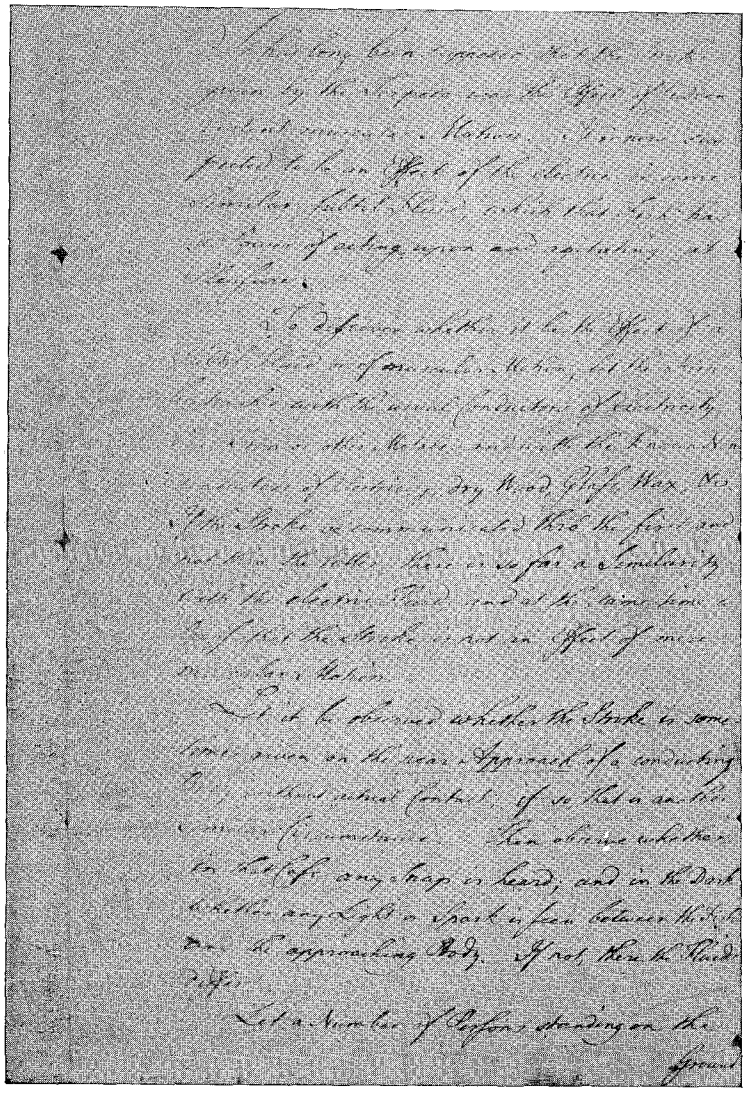
A UNIQUE FRANKLIN LETTER

BY FRANK W. GUNSAULUS

FRANKLIN is an illustration of the truth that a strong man obtains refreshing for his power from the variety of his tasks. He would have approved of Dr. Lyman Beecher's reply to one who was complained of as one having too many irons in the fire. Dr. Beecher's answer was, "Put them all in, shovel, tongs, and the rest." Great is the new impulse and increment of strength when one turns from one inspiring labor to another entirely worthy of his abilities. At the date of this letter Franklin was devoting much of his attention to his country through his new friendship with Lord Dartmouth. Dartmouth had followed Hillsborough, who had resigned in a great rage after George III. was weary of him and his dealings with the Colonies. Franklin became so confident of Dartmouth's good disposition that he took a holiday from politics, much



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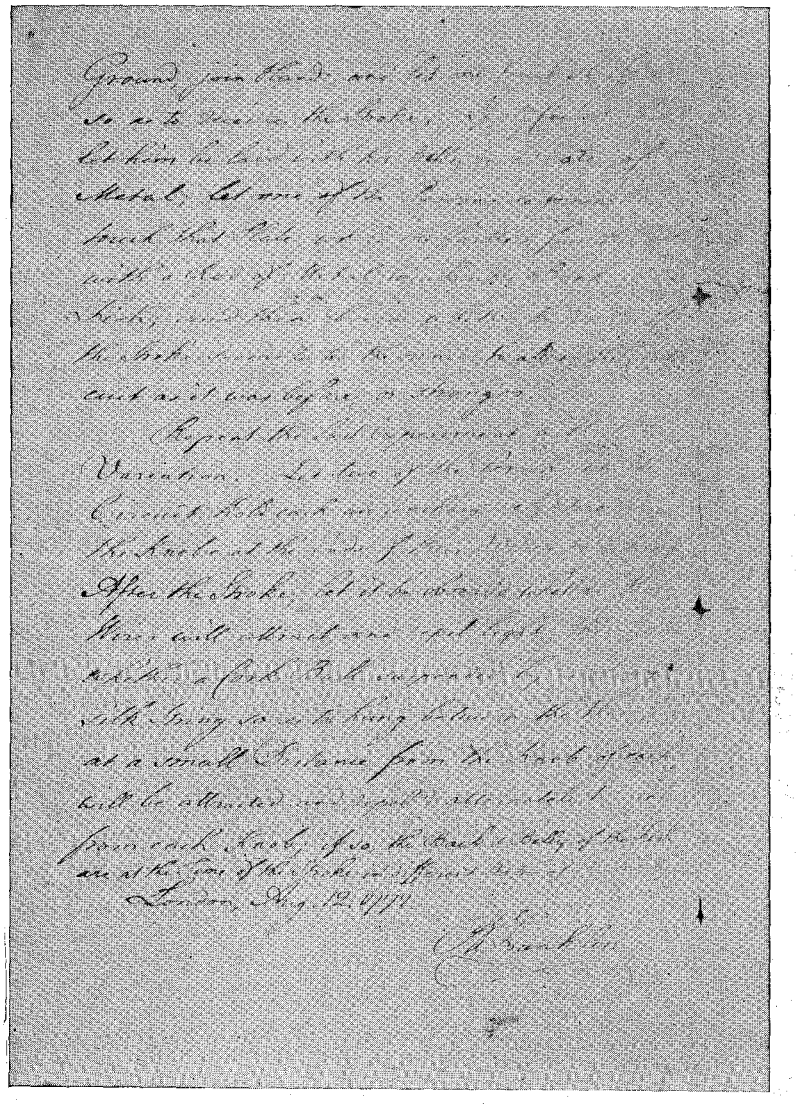
as our President leaves problems of rate regulation for the study of the birds now appearing in Washington with hints of spring. It was at this time, and before Franklin had conferred finally with Lord Dartmouth as to the "imprudence" which the latter discovered in the zeal of Hutchinson and the attitude of the Massachusetts Assembly toward the

Curiously enough, one night, more than a century after, sitting at the club of "Ye Odde Volumes" with Bernard Quaritch, the late eminent and unique Nimrod among mighty book-hunters, an English gentleman next to him at table remarked upon Franklin's ability to do at least two different things well. He was himself, as I understood, a kinsman



Stamp Act, that we may fancy his sitting down with deliberation and delight and writing with evident care and complete absorption in his subject this statement and description of the goal to which he had arrived in his studies of electricity.

of the Dartmouth family. He most interestingly repeated a tradition that on the same day in August when Franklin wrote a final reply to Lord Hillsborough on his wrathful reference to a possible war with Spain and its consequences, he

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wrote out in his full, flowing, and unimpeded hand the statement here reproduced:

It has long been supposed that the Stroke given by the Torpedo was the Effect of sudden violent muscular Motion. It is now suspected to be an Effect of the electric or some similar subtil Fluid, which that Fish has a power of acting upon and agitating at Pleasure.

To discover whether it be the Effect of a subtil Fluid or of muscular Motion, let the Fish be touch'd with the usual Conductors of Electricity, vis. Iron or other Metals; and with the known Non-conductors of Electricity, dry Wood, Glass, Wax, &c. If the Stroke be communicated thro' the first and not thro' the latter, there is so far a Similarity with the electric Fluid; and at the same time a Proof that the Stroke is not an Effect of mere muscular Motion.

Let it be observed whether the Stroke is sometimes given on the near Approach of a conducting Body without actual Contact; if so, that is another similar Circumstance. Then observe whether in that Case any Snap is heard; and in the Dark whether any Light or Spark is seen between the Fish and the approaching Body. If not, then the Fluids differ.

Let a Number of Persons standing on the Ground, join Hands, and let one touch the Fish so as to receive the Stroke. If all feel it, then let him be laid with his Belly on a Plate of Metal; let one of the Persons so joining Hands touch that Plate, while the farthest from the Plate with a Rod of Metal touches the Back of the Fish; and then observe whether the Force of the Stroke seems to be the same to all in the Circuit as it was before, or stronger.

Repeat the last Experiment with this Variation. Let two of the Persons in the Circuit hold each an uncharg'd electric Phial, the Knobs at the Ends of their Wires touching. After the Stroke, let it observ'd whether those Wires will attract and repel light Bodies; and whether a Cork Ball suspended by a long silk String so as to hang between the Wires at a small Distance from the Knob of each, will be attracted and repell'd alternately to and from each Knob; if so, the Back & Belly of the Fish are at the Time of the Stroke in different States of Electricity.

B. FRANKLIN.

London, Aug. 12, 1772.

Just then we were dreaming of the Armour Institute of Technology, whose foundations had not been laid except in the purpose of Mr. Armour, and in our plan for teaching electrical engineering among other things. Mr. Armour was in London, and I told him about this letter. There was a very romantic side to Mr. Armour's mind, and it appeared at once when he said: "I wish you would get that letter." If ever there were two men who could inspire a man with the confidence that whatever either of them wished must somehow be obtained, one was Philip D. Armour, who could break an apparently omnipotent corner in wheat, and the other was Bernard Quaritch, who never lost a scent, and rarely failed in bagging his game. Fortunately, one day the letter (whose value as a money-getter had been increased slightly by the imprudence of an agent) was laid before me in an old shop which I often visited. It was gladly purchased, and we prize it as the first of our autograph treasures in the electrical department.

NOT ALL MONEY-MAD

BY H. E. ROOD

SEVERAL weeks ago a group of New York business and professional men were chatting together in a train, late one afternoon, while being whirled from the din and uproar of the great city to their country homes, thirty miles distant. The talk naturally turned upon matters of present interest to the public, and included discussion of the later phases of the life insurance upheaval, of political corruption, of alleged intrigues at the National capital and at several State capitals, of investigations of great corporations and trusts, and of the probable effect upon the country at large of such developments. Finally, one of the group exclaimed:

"Well, it does seem as if there were mighty few honest men left in charge of large affairs, doesn't it—speaking, of course, just among ourselves," he added, quickly.

"Oh, I don't know," another remarked. "It looks to me as if all this upturning of questionable practices might indicate a higher standard of honor on the part of

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the public than we have been credited with. If the people weren't aroused to possible iniquity in many quarters, surely all this row would not have come about."

"I can't agree with you," the first speaker said, warmly. "When we think of the time and care and money spent in trying to promote the principles of the Christian religion in our own country, it is patent that we have fallen short only of absolute failure. Look at the discouraging reports from theological seminaries, where students for the ministry are becoming fewer and fewer; at the opportunities for churches and church work all over the land which are not taken advantage of. . . . No, sir, we are in a pretty bad way, I'm afraid."

Then the conversation languished, and the group turned to their afternoon newspapers.

A few days later one of the men happened to see, in a weekly journal of the Protestant Episcopal Church in America, the following advertisement:

WANTED—Young men of education and refinement, to do mission work in Arkansas and study for Holy Orders. Poor pay and hard work. Apply to ARCHDEACON LLOYD, Little Rock, Ark.

Instantly recurred to him the talk in the train and the various opinions expressed. He carefully cut out the advertisement, and a fortnight later mailed to Archdeacon Lloyd a letter calling attention to it, and inquiring whether any answers thereto had been received. That same afternoon, on the train, he mentioned his letter to the friends with whom he traveled daily to and from his place of business, and they greeted his words with smiles. All were agreed that, in this coldly calculating period of money-getting, Archdeacon Lloyd would have his trouble for his pains. As one expressed it, "The Archdeacon's may be an optimistic nature, but his advertisement will not add to the sale of postage-stamps; you can bet on that!"

In less than a week came a brief note from Archdeacon Lloyd, written hastily, saying that he had returned at midnight from a hard trip of several weeks, and was leaving in a few hours for another journey, but that on coming back from this second expedition he would gladly answer in full the inquiry as to the result of the advertisement. This answer in full has just been received, and is as follows (with the exception of names, which are omitted for obvious reasons):

Little Rock, Arkansas, March 30, 1906.

My Dear Mr. ——:

Your letter of the 10th asked me the result of the advertisement in "The Churchman" for men to do mission work in Arkansas.

We could only afford to let it run for three insertions. We put a notice in some months ago, also, and I will give you the result of both.

Quite a large number of answers came, but of course they had to be weeded out, as some were not up to the standard. A man must have had at least a partial college course, and must have had some experience in doing mission work and in reading the service.

He must also be well recommended by at least three priests who know him personally and are willing to vouch for his fitness; he has to pay his own way down.

The Bishop, for his part, offers board and room and about fifteen dollars per month for clothes, washing, and books. The room is generally the vestry-room of the little mission chapel, which has been fitted up with a washstand and a cot.

As a result of these notices, we have a splendid body of young men who are preparing for Holy Orders. Let me describe some of them:

John H——: age about thirty-two, born in Germany, came to the States as a big boy, later went back and took his Ph.D. from Göttingen. After being in Arkansas some months he was offered the position of Professor of Modern Languages at Kobé College (Imperial University), Japan, but declined. For four years before coming to Arkansas he was engaged in literary work, and was lay reader and superintendent of St. ——'s Church, New York, Sunday-school.

Mr. F. N——: born in Calcutta thirty-five years ago, is a graduate of La Martiniere College; attended the Seebpore Civil Engineering College at Cal-

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cutta. Gave up a position giving two hundred dollars per month to come here. In Arkansas he receives fifty dollars per month and no house. He has a wife and one child. His wife, to help things along until he is ordained, does the washing and cooking.

James F——: thirty-eight years old, graduate in law of the University of Pennsylvania, has taught English literature and history in a college; City Magistrate for the last five years at ——, and was also Assistant to the State's Prosecuting Attorney, and a leader in politics of that State.

Mr. E——: age about thirty. Ex-Adventist minister, of ——, and a graduate of their best college. He is teaching a country school which runs for six months, and on Sundays takes three services which average seven miles apart. He gets thirty dollars per month from the school, and the Bishop gives him twenty dollars, but he has to save enough out of the school money to carry him through the other six months. He has just been offered the position as head of —— School for the next year at a stipend of one hundred dollars per month, and for nine months. This town is one of his mission points. He has asked the Bishop whether he shall take it or not. The probabilities are that the Bishop will tell him to take it, and then cut off his twenty dollars per month grant, which can then be given to another student in some other new field not yet opened up for want of support. This man was lay reader for St. Peter's Church, ——. He will be ordained about six months from now.

Mr. ——: age about twenty-six, a second-year college man. He has ——, and has been getting seventeen dollars per month and a little help from his uncle, who is well off. This last Christmas he worked in a store, and made enough to get a new suit of clothes. The Bishop has promised to help him out with a grant of ten dollars per month, so now there is a risk of his waxing fat and lazy on twenty-seven dollars per month.

Mr. J. W——: age twenty-two, only a graduate of some high school; he is at ——, where he gets whatever they can pay him, which is a room and about twenty dollars per month. He is doing a splendid work, and costs the Bishop nothing. Just how he manages to live I do not know; but as he never complains, and is strong and healthy, matters stand at that.

I have three letters on my desk now asking for work, with a view to taking Holy Orders. The Bishop has about all he wants now, but there is no difficulty in getting men.

Let me add that it is generally "like father, like son," and where the leader sets the example of heroic service there are always noble men who are ready to follow. Our Bishop was offered $2,500 per year when he came here, but, seeing the conditions, he gave up everything but $75 per month and a house.

As you will see by the little book I sent you a few days ago, the work is going merrily on, and there are great results; and it is certainly needed. I would like to have you come down here for a week or two, so that I could show you some of the real backwoods Arkansas life, with the magnificent opportunities for development of what will eventually be one of the finest States in the Union.

Now I have done more than you asked, but the whole thing is so interesting that I am sure you will not be worried in reading that which you did not ask for. I remain,

Yours truly,

(Signed) W. K. LLOYD.

Comment on Archdeacon Lloyd's letter is not necessary. Indeed, it would seem almost impertinent. But it is an inspiring assurance, at least, that what has been termed "American money-madness" is neither very deep nor universal.

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A NEW PLAN FOR IMMIGRANT INSPECTION

BY FREDERIC AUSTIN OGG

TWO striking features of immigration into the United States in recent years have been the enormous increase in its total volume and the shifting of its preponderating elements from Teutonic and Celtic peoples to Latin, Slavic, and Hebrew. If a third were to be added, it would be the extent to which fraud and questionable practices of various kinds have been responsible for the two foregoing.

The thorough probing to which the origins of our alien influx have lately been subjected by Mr. Marcus Braun, Mr. Maurice Fishberg, and other special inspectors in the employ of the Immigration Bureau has brought to light an astonishing catalogue of abuses whereby the stream of south European immigration is maintained at its present abnormal level. Of largest consequence are the following:

1. The importation of contract laborers, usually under the direction of padrones, from Greece, Italy, and Austria-Hungary.

2. The smuggling of immigrants across the Canadian and Mexican borders who would be certain of rejection at our Atlantic ports.

3. The "patching up" of immigrants afflicted with favus, trachoma, and other loathsome or contagious diseases so that they can get past the inspectors without detection, even though the process is likely to augment their sufferings later.

4. The forgery and sale of spurious naturalization certificates and the repeated use of the same certificates passed back and forth between relatives and friends.

5. The assisting of immigration, either by local authorities in Europe or by earlier comers in America.

6. The stimulating of immigration by transportation companies and their armies of paid agents and sub-agents in Europe.

Aside from the Chinese Exclusion Act, the laws of the United States designate ten classes of people as so undesirable that they are in all cases to be denied admission at our immigrant ports. These are idiots, lunatics, and epileptics, paupers—actual or prospective—and beggars, persons afflicted with loathsome or dangerous contagious diseases, convicts, polygamists, anarchists, prostitutes and procurers, assisted immigrants, and contract laborers. The question of who are and who are not desirable immigrants is, of course, largely relative, and people cannot be expected generally to hold the same opinion upon it, but practically everybody who has the country's interests at heart will agree that men and women belonging to any of these ten categories not only are not wanted among us, but if admitted would constitute a serious drag upon our civic life. Broadly speaking, an immigrant is to be considered tolerable, even if not positively desirable, in proportion to his ability and disposition to earn his own living honestly and to obey the laws. This shuts out the criminal, the diseased, the contract laborer, the physically and mentally deficient, the immoral, and the politically indisposed; and, on the whole, if we can be assured that all these types are consistently excluded, we shall be justified in feeling that, so far as the matters of numbers and quality are concerned, we have the immigration problem well in hand.

But, unfortunately, the assurance is not forthcoming. Instead, it is perfectly apparent that the bars which our present laws are supposed to raise against the most obvious classes of undesirables are only partially effective. The evidences are to be seen on every hand—in the enormous proportion of the foreign-born among our recipients of public charity, in the increasing numbers of the crippled, the anæmic, the scrofulous, and the consumptive who infest the foreign quarters

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of our large cities, and in the widespread operations of individuals and companies in Europe who derive immense profits from the promotion of undesirable immigration through underground channels. That an appalling number of aliens who are on the verge of dependency, defectiveness, and delinquency do somehow contrive to get into the country every year is a fact too well known to call for verification here. Nobody undertakes to deny it.

In casting about for a solution of the difficulty it is worth observing, in the first place, that the fault does not lie with the staff of officials who are charged with the enforcement of our immigration laws. From Mr. Sargent at the head, through such men as Mr. Watchorn at Ellis Island and Colonel Billings at the Boston station, to the least important inspector, the personnel of our immigration service is excellent, and can hardly be said to be surpassed by any department of the Government employ. The explanation for the inadequate operation of our restrictive measures is to be found rather in the character of the laws themselves, and especially in the nature of the machinery provided for their enforcement. On paper the laws look well, and in most respects they are not badly adapted to meet ordinary conditions. But the point is that what we have come in late years to be obliged to deal with is not the tranquil flow of aliens migrating on their own initiative which the lawmakers have generally had in mind, but a vast artificially stimulated and altogether abnormal immigration movement which is so tremendous in its momentum as to be able to override and all but reduce to a mere joke our whole restrictive system. This being the case, it is little to be wondered at that our laws break down under the strain and our officials are quite unable to stem the tide. On the whole, we may feel that the exclusion of 11,480 out of 1,037,979 applicants last year, and of 7,994 out of 820,864 the year before, was not a bad showing under the circumstances; but this does not allay the suspicion that the number ought to have been two or three times as large, and might have been but for the frauds and abuses which the immigration service as at present administered cannot be expected successfully to cope with.

Various means of redeeming the situation have been suggested. In his last annual message to Congress President Roosevelt made not fewer than half a dozen specific recommendations to this end—the prohibition of immigration *through* Canada and Mexico, the strengthening of our exclusion laws, heavier restraints upon the steamship companies, severer penalties for enticing immigration, etc.—and a large number of bills on the subject have been introduced during the present session. It is to be hoped that early action will result, though, with tariff, railroads, Statehood, insurance, the Canal, the Philippines, and San Domingo on hand, there seems small ground for expecting anything this year.

In the meantime one radical project has been proposed which ought to challenge general attention. That is the transfer of the whole system of immigrant inspection from America to Europe, so that our prospective alien influx might be sifted near its sources and only the desirable portion be allowed ever to reach our shores. The idea of this change in our machinery for the control of immigration is the outgrowth of years of experience and reflection on the part of men like Mr. Sargent and Mr. Watchorn. No topic is more discussed among immigration officials to-day, and with few exceptions there has come to be a common concurrence in the wisdom of the plan. Steps leading toward its realization have been included in the list of the President's recent recommendations.

Briefly stated, the problem is how to cut away all immigration which is illegal and as much as possible of that which, though not illegal, is yet more or less questionable. Undoubtedly one factor in the solution is the material strengthening of our exclusion laws, but there is good reason for affirming that an even more important one is the provision of better means for the enforcement of the laws that we already have. The greatest thing that can be said in favor of instituting a system of immigrant inspec-

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tion in Europe is that it would remove a very large proportion of the obstacles to law enforcement which are now the despair of our officials. These obstacles are of two distinct sorts. On the one hand, there are those which arise from the enticing of immigrants by unscrupulous agents and "runners," the disclaiming of responsibility on part of the steamship companies for the abuses committed by their employees, the widespread industry of doctoring diseased persons so as to enable them to elude the inspectors in America, the activity of padrones and other promoters of contract labor, and other evil practices which are carried on either in secret or under such conditions that only an observer on the ground could hope to detect and bring to justice the guilty parties. Through these means a great flood of undesirables is poured in upon us every year which has no legitimate place in the normal immigration movement and which puts a strain upon our exclusion system much too strong to be endured. The other class of obstacles to law enforcement includes such as arise from the faulty conditions under which the throngs of alien arrivals now have to be passed upon by our inspectors. Examination by shiploads—sometimes two or three shiploads in a single day—cannot but be conducive to haste and superficiality. Not infrequently six or seven thousand people are admitted at Ellis Island within the brief space between sunrise and sunset. Be they as vigilant as they may, it is absolutely impossible for the inspectors to ferret out more than the most gross and obvious cases of illegality.

The remedy seems, in part at least, to lie in shifting the whole work of supervision and inspection to Europe, where it can be administered in the closest possible touch with the origins of the immigration movement. A considerable amount of readjustment would be necessary, of course, to effect the change, but it ought not to prove difficult. First of all, fifteen or twenty ports ought to be fixed upon as exclusive points for the embarkation of emigrants bound for the United States. Perhaps an adequate list would be Hamburg, Bremen, Stettin, Rotterdam, Antwerp, London, Southampton, Liverpool, Havre, St. Nazaire, Marseilles, Fiume, Trieste, Naples, Genoa, and Odessa. At each of these ports should be located an immigrant station, similar, in a general way, to the immigrant stations at our larger Atlantic ports to-day, and it should be made the duty of the resident commissioners, with their staffs of inspectors and medical attachés, to examine carefully and minutely every man, woman, and child of alien nationality who applies for passage to the United States. Successful applicants should be given a certificate which alone would enable them to land at the port of destination; those unsuccessful should be made to understand then and there that, in their present state at least, there is no chance for them to carry out their intention of migration, and that the best thing for them to do is to return to their homes and either abandon their plans altogether or (especially in cases of pauperism or curable disease) proceed to put themselves in a condition to be acceptable to the inspectors. Eventually it might be found expedient to carry the work of inspection back a degree further still and have it performed at important centers in the interior of the countries from which the bulk of our immigrants come. At present, however, this project seems hardly practicable, and the one great expedient of promise seems to be the establishment of a thoroughgoing inspection service at the ports of embarkation. The advantages of the proposed system over the existing one may be summed up briefly as follows:

1. It would be an act of mercy to the immigrant who is practically certain to be debarred on his arrival to prevent him from migrating at all. Better keep an undesirable from starting than send him back after he has reached our shores. He is thereby saved the horrors of a steerage journey, the crushing disappointment which comes from being rejected when his plans are seemingly just on the point of realization, and also the treasured pittance of money which would go to pay for his steamer ticket; and in many cases where he might succeed in getting through he is saved from a worse existence in an American

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slum than he has ever known in the old home.

2. It would go far toward bringing to an end the pernicious activity of the steamship companies and their agents in enticing immigration. "Stimulated" immigrants are almost invariably the worst immigrants, and a thorough system of inspection before embarkation might reasonably be expected to weed out so large a proportion of the undesirable class that the profits ordinarily accruing from the business of stimulation would suffer a material diminution; and it is needless to observe that whatever will cut off the profits will by so much tend to minimize the evil.

3. It would mean a very much closer supervision of the whole immigration process than is now possible, and would facilitate the detection and punishment of all manner of evaders of the law who at present are generally quite immune, particularly padrones and people whose business it is to "patch up" diseased aliens who expect to migrate. Instead of an occasional itinerant inspector sent out to probe into these abuses, we should have a corps of officials on the ground all the time to keep a close watch on everything that pertains to the immigrant movement. Our consuls are at present charged with a vague function of this sort, but their time is otherwise occupied and as a rule they give very little attention to the matter.

4. It would make possible a much more deliberate and searching examination of applicants than can be had under the present system. Instead of five or six thousand people being dumped upon a small group of inspectors in a single day, the gradual assembling at the ports of embarkation would enable the examiners to work under conditions relatively free from hurry and distraction. The result could not but be a highly multiplied efficiency.

Two possible objections to the plan suggest themselves. One is the question of expense, and the other is the necessity of securing the consent and co-operation of the European nations involved. To the first it may be replied, in a word, that the plan contemplates a simple transfer of the immigrant service from one side of the Atlantic to the other, and the element of cost would not be materially increased over what it now is, since the maintenance of an inspection service at our own ports would be rendered almost, if not entirely, unnecessary. And as for the consent of the European Powers, it is worth observing that none of these look with favor upon the growth of emigration to America, that all have more or less stringent restrictive legislation or decrees, and that all have put themselves on record as being antagonistic to the abuses of which we are complaining and which are fast driving us to the new arrangements for inspection. These things being true, it ought not to be a difficult matter for our State Department to secure concessions whereby the proposed system should be established at an early date on a basis substantially satisfactory to all.

THE RECORD OF A GREAT EXPEDITION[1]

THE completion of a definitive and for the first time absolutely exact and full edition of the Journals of Meriwether Lewis and William Clark is brought about at the end of the century which has passed since their famous expedition. Throughout that hundred years the knowledge of what this great piece of exploration meant to American history and the development of the continent has become continously more apparent. President Jefferson himself, keenly alive as he was to the value of the undertaking he set on foot, could have had but a faint idea of what it was to mean to the United States to acquire Oregon, get a firm footing on the Pacific, and open up the enormous Western territory now expanding so tre-

[1] *The Original Journals of the Lewis and Clark Expedition, 1804-06.* Edited by Reuben Gold Thwaites, LL.D. 8 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. $60, net.

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mendously in wealth and power. The achievement deserves the fullest and most generous recognition by all patriots, and its record is a National document of transcendent value. Its celebration at Portland last summer, by the first international exposition to be held west of the Rockies, was a worthy reminder. That it was needed in some directions is illustrated by the fact that the present writer, having occasion at that time to consult a certain American general encyclopædia on the subject, found twelve lines about Lewis, and not one about Clark! It may be hoped that this fine and thoroughly edited set of the Journals will give a stimulus to the study of American growth in territory and civilization.

It will be remembered that when Jefferson had concluded the Louisiana Purchase, and realized what a vast unexplored country lay ready to our hands in the Northwest, he lost no time in pressing upon Congress an appropriation to pay for sending an expedition up the Big Muddy (or Missouri) River, to cross the Rockies (then often called the Stony Mountains) and to find a river which should reach to the Pacific (the mouth of the Columbia had been discovered in 1792 by Captain Gray, in his ship the Columbia, but its course was not known). Jefferson chose his own private secretary to lead the expedition. The description of Captain Lewis by Jefferson in his Memoir is a vivid piece of portraiture:

> Of courage undaunted; possessing a firmness and perseverance of purpose which nothing but impossibilities could divert from its direction; careful as a father of those committed to his charge, yet steady in the maintenance of order and discipline; intimate with the Indian character, customs, and principles; habituated to the hunting life; guarded, by exact observations of the vegetables and animals of his own country, against losing time in the description of objects already possessed; honest, disinterested, liberal, of sound understanding, and a fidelity to truth so scrupulous that whatever he should report would be as certain as if seen by ourselves—with all these qualifications, as if selected and implanted by nature in one body for this express purpose, I could have no hesitation in confiding the enterprise to him.

Such was the man who, together with his chosen assistant, Captain William Clark, headed the party of twenty-nine—about half United States soldiers, half volunteer Kentuckians, hunters, and boatmen—who were to spend two years and five months in a journey of 8,500 miles to the Pacific and back. The story of their wanderings and hardships was told in some detail in an article published in The Outlook at the time of the Portland Exposition, and need not here be repeated. Their Journals have a triple interest: first, as the record of a great historical achievement carried out against almost insuperable difficulties; secondly, because they contain permanently valuable information about animals and plant life, climate, physical contours, and especially about the Indians as they were then—their customs and attitude toward the invading whites; and, finally, as intensely interesting human documents. It is this last aspect that will attract, and strongly, the general reader. Because the writers of the journals were not literary men, and because they often wrote roughly and hastily, interpolating memoranda and accounts in their narrative, the earliest editor of the journals, Nicholas Biddle, thought it essential to condense, paraphrase, and rewrite. He meant well, and in a way did his work well, but as better editions have been prepared, and now, most of all, as we have the originals with perfect completeness, it becomes evident that Biddle often simply killed the freshness, raciness, and human liveliness of the original writers. One may, to be sure, skip a bit here and there; but there is a quaintness in the tale of daily adventure that fascinates and amuses with almost the steady continuity of interest that the boy feels in Robinson Crusoe. There are humorous as well as thrilling incidents in the accounts of the dealings with Indian tribes, and there is a really pathetic tale about the "Bird Woman" who became attached to the explorers and for whom they named a river. Of hunting adventures there are no end, and when we remember that our explorers were the first white men to face the grizzly bear and that they hunted the buffalo with ardor, it may be seen that there would be no lack of thrilling incidents. Altogether,

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apart from the documentary value of the Journals, there is a great deal of good reading in them, and they are all the better for their *naïveté* and indications of human foibles and failings.

The history of the manuscripts of the Journals has been a curious one. After Mr. Biddle made the "Narrative" above referred to, in 1814, President Jefferson collected so far as he could the manuscripts and note-books, but found not a little difficulty in getting them together, and, in point of fact, did not gather anything like the whole of the material. His collection was deposited with the American Philosophical Society at Philadelphia, and there lay forgotten and unexamined by the editors of the several editions of Biddle's "Narrative" until 1893, when Dr. Elliott Coues found the material and made some use of it in his reprint of the Biddle "Narrative," but without any attempt to reproduce the documents themselves. All this mass of material was put in the hands of the editor of the present edition—and it may be said here that no possible better choice could have been made of an editor than Dr. Thwaites, whose work in that great undertaking known as "The Jesuit Relations" and in the valuable series of books called "Early Western Travel," not to speak of his other historical studies, has made him a great authority on all that pertains to our early Western history. In addition to this material the editor had at his disposal five manuscript note-books written during the expedition by Captain Clark, and discovered, together with many route-maps and letters, in 1903, in the possession of his descendants. Mr. Biddle had these manuscripts, but they escaped President Jefferson's search when he was putting the records together. There are included also two extremely interesting journals kept by two soldiers who were with the expedition. We have enumerated a few of the more important features in the way of editorial records included in this edition for the purpose of bringing out the fact that, in claiming that the edition is definitive and complete, something very much more is meant than that it has a few minor additions. As it stands it has about three times as much matter as did the Biddle "Narrative," and it must always remain the authoritative work on this subject. An interesting feature is a separate volume containing upwards of fifty maps made by Captain Clark. The illustrations reproduce in facsimile all the original sketches and maps by Lewis and Clark, together with many pages of the Journals and other documents of permanent interest. In form the seven volumes are in a handsome octavo size, and are clearly and carefully printed, with all possible adjuncts of notes and explanations, while the arrangement has been carefully thought out and is thoroughly satisfactory.

TWO NEW HISTORIES OF ENGLAND[1]

NOTWITHSTANDING its inherent defects, the co-operative method of history-writing seems certain to become not merely a permanent fact in literature, but a fact of constantly increasing importance. We have recently had occasion to discuss several new works of this kind, and the list is now extended by two additions which likewise call for something more than passing comment. Both are histories of England, the one a twelve-volume political history designed on an impressive scale; the other of just half that number of volumes and intended to cover all aspects of English history from the earliest times to the battle of Waterloo. Of the former, three volumes have been issued; of the latter, two; but in neither case with reference to chronological order. The three volumes of "The Po-

[1] *The Political History of England.* Edited by William Hunt, D.Litt., and Reginald L. Poole, M.A. In Twelve Volumes. Vol. II. 1066 to 1216. By George Burton Adams, M.A., Professor of History in Yale University. Vol. III. 1216 to 1377. By T. F. Tout, M.A., Professor of Mediæval and Modern History in the Victoria University of Manchester, formerly Fellow of Pembroke College, Oxford. Vol. X. 1760 to 1801. By William Hunt, D.Litt., Trinity College, Oxford. $2.60, net, per volume.

A History of England. Edited by C. W. C. Oman, Chichele Professor of History in the University of Oxford. In Six Volumes. Vol. IV. England under the Tudors. By Arthur D. Innes. Vol. V. England under the Stuarts. By C. M. Trevelyan, Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. $3, net, per volume.

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litical History of England" deal respectively with the periods from the Norman Conquest to the death of John, from the death of John to the close of the reign of Edward III., and from the accession of George III. to the resignation of Pitt in 1801; and those of the Oman "History of England" with the Tudor and Stuart periods. This fact of disconnected publication serves of itself to emphasize the tendency of co-operative histories to resolve into detached units.

"The Political History of England" might fairly be called an Oxford History of England, for almost all of its authors are connected with one or another of the Oxford colleges. Among the few exceptions is Mr. Adams, who is Professor of History in Yale. The period which has fallen to him (1066–1216) is of great significance. In this period were laid the foundations for a national England, a constitutional England, and an independent England. The changes involved in the coming of the Normans were violent and sweeping, but they were beneficial, and beneficial through, not in spite of, the anarchy, turmoil, and bloodshed which it is so frequently the historian's duty to chronicle. The century and a half from the battle of Hastings witnessed the implanting, hot-house growth, and decline of feudalism in England, witnessed the birth and first development of a new nation, witnessed the genesis of enduring political and legal institutions, and, above all, witnessed the dawning recognition on the part of monarch, baron, and prelate that a potent force, the force of public opinion, had come into being. The climax at Runnymede—climax and prelude too—may have been a class demonstration and a class victory in so far as concerns the concessions wrested from the king and embodied in Magna Carta; but it was a national triumph in that it vindicated the principle that the king, like the humblest of his subjects, must not violate the law. In this sense the Great Charter—which is, as Mr. Adams clearly shows, a feudal document from beginning to end—has rightly come to be regarded as the corner-stone of constitutional liberty.

The vital fact of the period is, of course, the conflict between the policy of centralization inaugurated by the Conqueror and the separatist tendencies of feudalism. Hence grew on the one side the long era of discord and civil war, on the other those institutions which Englishmen to-day prize so highly. It is comparatively easy to narrate the military aspects of the struggle and to set forth the characteristics of the kings, barons, and churchmen who played the leading rôles therein. But to expound the institutional and political development brought about is quite the reverse. Mr. Adams, it is satisfactory to find, has acquitted himself creditably both in narration and exposition. He has not, to be sure, availed himself of the rich opportunity for a vivid, glowing, and picturesque study, but if his performance is deficient in literary charm it is thoroughly scholarly, and the results attained call for high praise. The evidence is weighed scrupulously and in the light of the latest knowledge; there is no desire to ventilate theories or defend hypotheses; and the presentation, if matter of fact, is almost always lucid and adequate, perhaps the most striking exceptions in this respect being the treatment of the *curia regis* and of the papal grant of Ireland to Henry II. The account of feudalism is especially good, Mr. Adams making very evident the necessity for keeping firmly in mind the distinction between the political and economic phases of the system.

Mr. Tout's contribution is less successful. It covers the reigns of Henry III. and the first three Edwards, and thus includes the dramatic and momentous events of the Barons' War, the conquest of Wales and of Scotland, the successful rebellion of the latter, the preliminaries of the Hundred Years' War and the earlier campaigns of that struggle, with Crécy, Poitiers, and the capture of Calais. The period allotted to Mr. Tout also saw the rapid growth of the idea of nationality and government by Parliament, the fall of feudalism, the strengthening of the Church, and a marked development of constitutional law. With his treatment of these phenomena little fault is to be found. Turning-points are plainly indicated,

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milestones of progress firmly and correctly established, sound judgments rendered. It is in dealing with matters of foreign policy that Mr. Tout is weak, and more particularly in discussing the Welsh and Scottish wars. Here the bias of a hopelessly English point of view is discernible, finding expression, for example, in the characterization of Robert Bruce as a "clever adventurer" and "sacrilegious murderer and traitor." It is not that Mr. Tout ignores or suppresses facts, or neglects verification. On the contrary, he discloses a veritable passion for accuracy. But his interpretation of the facts too often is, however unconsciously, so far colored as to be suspect. Another defect is the absence of clear-cut portraitures and of a definite indication of the influence of the leading actors on the course of events. Persons rather than personality are revealed in Mr. Tout's pages—traits and works presented so loosely as in most cases to make but a superficial impression on the student's consciousness. In spite of all this, the volume is distinctly useful. It brings together in sufficiently condensed form an amazing quantity of data gleaned through original research, and is of no small corrective value; while the account it gives of political and constitutional evolution is, as has been said, deserving of commendation.

Something more than bias may be charged against Dr. Hunt's study of the reign of George III., and it must be a matter for regret that he has elected to deal with this particular period. The first few pages suffice to show that he is an uncompromising conservative in politics, a tory of the old school, and prepare the reader for a most unsympathetic view of the American and French Revolutions. George III. is painted as a much-misunderstood monarch, an altruistic king who "hoped to be able to carry out his ideal system of government, to destroy party distinctions, and establish his rule over his people for their benefit and with their good will." Advocates of a larger liberty at home and abroad are branded as demagogues, and the colonial revolutionists are rebels and insurgents. "Seditious" is a word in frequent use. The Declaration of Independence is "crude." Of those in England who sympathized with the colonists we are told: "In England every war gives an opportunity to some vain and foolish persons for condemning their own country and showing sympathy with its enemies." If, in the events leading up to the War of Independence, "the British government appears to have shown a short-sighted insistence on legal rights and a contemptuous disregard of the sentiments and opinions of the colonists," the latter for their part displayed "generally a turbulent, insolent, and unreasonable temper." The fall of the Bastille "made hardly any impression on French public opinion," the revolution that followed is a "by-word," and the propaganda "authorized" by the decree of the Convention of 1792, pledging France to assist all peoples that desired freedom, is denounced as "a gross insult to the British government and nation." Time and again, in short, we come upon passages abounding in partisanship, and even in connection with comparatively insignificant details of domestic politics. It must be admitted that the events of the times were such that it is still difficult to write of them with a perfectly open mind. Even so, Dr. Hunt's presentation makes too great a demand not only on the caution but on the patience of the student. On the other hand, his volume, like those of Mr. Adams and Mr. Tout, contains a great mass of important, well-digested, and well-arranged information not usually found in general histories. This is particularly the case in respect to the development of the system of government by cabinet, the break-up of the Whig "connection" system, and the reconstruction of the Tory party. Like the contributions of Mr. Adams and Mr. Tout, again, the book is provided with an excellent critical bibliography, both to original and to secondary sources.

The Oman "History of England," judging by the two volumes that have appeared, promises to differ materially from the Oxford work in treatment as well as in scope. Since it proposes to cover all phases of the history of the country in about half the space to be consumed by the other in narrating the

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political history, with only casual reference to economic, social, religious, and intellectual development, it is evident that much less attention will be paid to detail. This, however, will be no weighty detriment provided the really vital circumstances are set forth with accuracy and clarity and in correct perspective. These fundamental requirements are admirably met both by Mr. Trevelyan and by Mr. Innes. It is impossible, even were it desirable, to compare their productions directly with those already published in "The Political History of England," for the reason that at no point is the same ground traversed. But we may say that Messrs. Fisher, Pollard, Montague, and Lodge, who have been selected to discuss the Tudor and Stuart periods in the Hunt and Poole history, may well feel satisfied if they attain the standard set in "England under the Tudors" and "England under the Stuarts." The latter has been noticed in an earlier issue of The Outlook, and we would simply remind our readers that it is an exceptionally brilliant piece of work by one who is a master at once of style and of scholarship. That Mr. Innes's "England under the Tudors" is scarcely its peer in point of style is not surprising. It is, however, no less scholarly, and in some respects is perhaps more satisfactory, notably in regard to the discussion of economic conditions. The period offers an unquestionably strong temptation to indulgence in "fine writing," but Mr. Innes at all times keeps his pen under control, and the result is a serious, sincere, direct, and graphic narrative in which Tudor England stands revealed in all its strength, its weaknesses, and its possibilities. The achievement of Henry VII. in restoring peace and order to a land shattered by the internecine strife of the Lancastrian wars; the nation-building that went on under his son; the storm and stress of the Reformation and the Catholic Reaction; the Golden Age of Elizabeth—each reign, each movement, is set forth with the central facts in bold relief. As in Mr. Trevelyan's book, there is a striking series of portraits, of which the most impressive are easily those of Henry VIII., Mary Tudor, Mary Stuart, and Elizabeth. In every instance the point of view is of one who would combine the spirit of the age with the knowledge afforded by chronological distance in order to arrive at a just and impartial judgment. Not always is success to be recorded, perhaps least in the case of "Good Queen Bess," who as here painted is far from the paragon of virtues and charms extolled by courtiers and poets. But in the last analysis, when all the defects possible have been taken into account, the verdict must be favorable to Mr. Innes.

Comment on Current Books

Alexander Mackennal B.A., D.D.

Dr. Mackennal, who passed away not quite two years ago, will long be remembered by many friends in this conntry, and especially in the Free Churches of England, among which he was recognized as a leader. He was a man of large manhood, high ideals, and statesmanlike; independent and open-minded, courageous and generous. His biographer has judiciously given large space to his correspondence, possessing a many-sided interest. Conspicuous in this are the chapters entitled "A Spiritual Directorate," a unique series of letters by which, at the end of patient years, he succeeded in bringing a friend out of utter skepticism into clear and settled religious faith. (Alexander Mackennal, B.A., D.D.: Life and Letters. By Dugald MacFadyen. James Clarke & Co., London, England.)

The Diviner Immanence

The immanence or indwelling of God in his universe is as real for one part thereof as for another—for tigers as for saints; not, however, the same in kind or in degree. We see the "diviner" immanence in saints. "In the creative relation God is equally near all men. In the ethical relation he is much nearer some than others"—a conception which the author substitutes for the Biblical idea of a fuller indwelling. His general aim is to clear the immanence-doctrine of misunderstanding, and to emphasize its higher reaches. One who sympathizes with the constructive purpose, and recognizes substantial merit in

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the essay, may regret that it is cumbered with some excrescences. That the Biblical writers all were men of exceptional religious opportunities, endowments, and piety is hardly credible. Nor can the author's theory of an "impoverishment" of God by the incarnation be otherwise regarded than as a specimen of the peculiar sort of rationalism with which high orthodoxy is often allied. (The Diviner Immanence. By Francis J. McConnell. Eaton & Mains, New York. 75c., net.)

Famous Introductions to Shakespeare's Plays Dr. Beverley Warner, well known among Shakespeare students as the author of "English History in Shakespeare's Plays," has prepared a very useful compilation of the best-known introductions to the plays from the time of Nicholas Rowe to that of Edmund Malone, and has put into very convenient and accessible form a body of writing of interest to readers of the plays and of value to students. Nicholas Rowe, an Under-Secretary of State and the Poet Laureate of an unpoetic time, was the author of the first formal biography of Shakespeare, and of what would be called a handy-volume edition of his plays. The idea of what was handy in books at that time is suggested by the fact that Rowe's "Life" was the preface to seven stout octavo volumes. This was at the beginning of the seventeenth century. Edmund Malone, on the other hand, was the editor of the last important edition of Shakespeare during the eighteenth century, and between the two editors there raged a battle royal. Among other contestants were Pope, Warburton, Johnson, Steevens, Capell, and Isaac Reed, who, with Rowe and Shakespeare's earliest editors, Heminge and Condell, are the contributors to this very interesting volume, which has the value of recording the growth of opinion in regard to Shakespeare, and may be regarded as almost a complete chapter in English literary criticism. (Famous Introductions to Shakespeare's Plays. By the Notable Editors of the Eighteenth Century. Edited by Beverley Warner, D.D. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. $2.50, net.)

The Four Million Very jolly, unconventional, and lively tales these, dealing, as the group-title hints, with common things and common people. The author, Mr. O. Henry, has a knack of utilizing singular coincidences, and mingles the burlesque element with true bits of life and nature in a way as surprising as it is entertaining. Coney Island, the cheap boarding-house, the East Side drug-store, the park, the young couple in the cheap flat, the Clover Leaf Social Club—all these and other phases of the life of the "four million" in New York furnish curious incidents for little stories, each with its individual point, and all pervaded with genuine fun and here and there a touch of sentiment or pathos. (The Four Million. By O. Henry. McClure, Phillips & Co., New York. $1.)

In the Shadow A painful and distasteful but undoubtedly powerful study of a Haytian negro who is highly educated in England, has a certain social standing there, and dreams of becoming a revolutionary hero, and of making a great nation of Hayti. Under the pressure of a series of frightful incidents he "reverts to type" and becomes a semi-savage with pathetic helplessness and alternating moods of brutal ferocity and shrinking cowardice. There is a great deal that is unpleasant about the tale, and, although it is told with vividness, one doubts whether such a psycho-physiological analysis is really desirable. (In the Shadow. By Henry C. Rowland. D. Appleton & Co., New York. $1.50.)

James, the Lord's Brother Whether the author of the Epistle of James is identical with the James whom St. Paul refers to as "the Lord's brother" (Galatians i. 19), the bishop of the mother church at Jerusalem, seems to be a problem unlikely to be solved with unanimity. Modern critics stand largely for the negative. Among them may be named our countrymen, Professors Bacon, Gould, and McGiffert. The present volume by Dr. William Patrick, Principal of Manitoba College, Winnipeg, maintains the affirmative, and with ample learning makes a very plausible argument. His conclusion is the one that Christian men would naturally wish to be true, but it must be confessed that serious difficulties are in the way. These Dr. Patrick combats with great ability, but with a success that seems somewhat contingent on the predilection of his readers. (James, the Lord's Brother. By William Patrick, D.D. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $2, net.)

The Life of St. Mary Magdalen Of St. Jerome's "Lives of the Saints," that of the Magdalen appeals specially to the general reader. Because of a capital translation by one Cavalca, this biography became particularly well known among Italian devotional romances of the Middle Ages. Who was its real author?—St. Jerome or, more probably, some Italian Franciscan mediæval writer? No one knows. In popular "burgher" style the story recounts the relations of Jesus with the family of Lazarus, whose sister Mary is here identi-

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fied with the Magdalen. Save for its account of the Passion, the narration is a perfect tissue of inventions; indeed, the novelist himself naïvely explains that he is narrating how it pleases him to think certain things may have happened. The Magdalen, for instance, as "Vernon Lee" also points out in her preface, is not at all the sort of woman that many people think; when she took to scandalous courses, it was from despair at being forsaken by her bridegroom, who left her on her wedding day to follow Christ, and who was no other than the Evangelist John! Moreover, let no unnecessarily wrong imputations be put upon the Magdalen's conduct; in those days it took very little indeed (in fact, nothing which wicked mediæval times would notice!) to get a woman into disrepute. We see this sinful Magdalen, then, repenting her sins, such as they are, living with her sister and brother, and we see Jesus and his mother as their guests. The quaintly striking feature of the volume lies not only in its restfully familiar language, but in the fact that, like some early Italian fresco of the Passion, the chief figures in it seem to be the dramatically contrasted Magdalen and the mother of Christ. The real emotional interest is apparently thrown upon them, not on the Apostles, and often scarcely upon the One who was its principal figure. (The Life of St. Mary Magdalen. John Lane Company, New York. $1.50, net.)

Literature: Its Principles and Problems

Thoughtful readers will acknowledge this to be a work of rare merit. The field it covers is immense, but it is covered with well-balanced attention to the parts and to the whole, the specific and the general, the field itself and the great workers in it, who illustrate the application of the principles of their art. Not only the field itself, but its relation to other fields of mental activity—science, philosophy, politics, criticism, ethics, etc.—are brought into a comprehensive view. A clarifying and a stimulating work it is, critical and widely informing, which Dr. Hunt, of Princeton, presents on a subject of general interest and active discussion. It is practicable here only to indicate the general conceptions he unfolds and applies in criticism and suggestion; first, his Miltonic conception of authorship as using literature for the high end of mental and moral enfranchisement. Its specific quality is idealistic, in danger now of being damaged by an excessive linguistic interest. The highest literature and the highest ethics unite for the solution of the great problems of human character and destiny. Against the "mundane" school of literature the deepest instincts and interests of humanity protest. Literature as a fine art has to avoid a false course on either side, the fleshly and the finical. "Modern tendencies are in the main unliterary. . . . The age is one of lighter miscellany, produced in forms the most manageable and marketable." With this high ideal of literature as the artistic embodiment of the world's best thought Dr. Hunt passes to the discussion of literary forms and their various types in poetry and prose, poetics and prose fiction. The prevailing belief that writers not accredited as poets had better limit themselves to prose composition is rejected; an æsthetic value is recognized in the practical exercise of the poetic spirit. Finally, Dr. Hunt takes up open questions and present practical problems. The emphasis here as elsewhere is upon the great underlying principles, with criticisms and cautions worth heeding, and insistence on spontaneity and freedom disciplined by conscientious fidelity to exalted ideals. (Literature: Its Principles and Problems. By Theodore W. Hunt, Ph.D., Litt.D. Funk and Wagnalls Company, New York. $1.20, net.)

A Little Sister of Destiny

A group of rather improbable tales tied together by an altogether fantastic introduction. They vary in merit, but as a whole will not enhance the author's reputation as a whimsical humorist. (A Little Sister of Destiny. By Gelett Burgess. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. $1.50.)

Mark Twain's Library of Humor

A second volume of entertaining selections approved by Mark Twain. They are from many recognized humorists as well as from writers less well known in this field who have, once at least, written something about "Women and Things" worthy of preservation in a library of fun. This series of volumes bids fair to be extremely popular. (Women and Things. By Mark Twain. Harper & Brothers, New York. $1.50.)

Municipal Ownership

In our issue of December 16, 1905, will be found a review of Hugo R. Meyer's "Government Regulation of Railway Rates," a strong presentation of the case for freedom of transportation unregulated by any Governmental supervision. Professor Meyer has since turned his attention to the problems involved in what is now best known as municipal ownership, and in a compact volume presents the findings of a personal inquiry into the results of municipal ownership in leading British cities, with especial reference to the utilities of transportation and lighting. The experience of these cities, he argues, is such as utterly to discredit the doctrine that "the

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so-called municipal public service industries which make use of the public streets differ in vital respects from the ordinary trading and manufacturing industries;" and he supports his argument by a formidable array of statistics. Unfortunately, he has obviously failed to examine the facts which have given impetus to the agitation for municipal ownership, and his book may fairly be regarded as a piece of special pleading. It is manifestly an error to assume, as he seems to assume, that all the "greed for gain" is on the side of the municipalities. Nevertheless, while his work is far from convincing, it is of value in laying emphasis on aspects of the question which the advocates of municipal ownership are prone to forget; and it should, consequently, make for more careful and intelligent discussion of the subject. (Municipal Ownership in Great Britain. By Hugo R. Meyer. The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.50, net.)

Primitive Christian Education

Various influential writers, *e. g.*, Hallam in his "Middle Ages," have represented the early Church as hostile to learning. This opinion is vigorously controverted in the present volume by Miss Hodgson, lecturer at University College, Bristol, England, who presents at length the evidence existing for the contrary. That the Christians were seriously disadvantaged by the subserviency of the imperial school system to paganism is true enough, but that they did as well as they could under the circumstances there is much to show. What was their necessity is not to be set down as intolerance. A striking parallel appears between the principles set forth by Clement of Alexandria in his "Pædagogue" and by Locke in his "Thoughts Concerning Education." It is certain that the primary purpose of education—the cultivation of self-mastery and the formation of sound character—has never been more sedulously pursued than by the early Christian teachers. Nor can the learning of the great saints of the Church, such as Basil and Gregory, be wholly attributable to the pagan schools of their unbaptized youth. Greek study flourished in Irish monasteries when it had almost disappeared elsewhere in the West. Miss Hodgson has shed light on a subject imperfectly known. (Primitive Christian Education. By Geraldine Hodgson. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $1.50, net.)

The Redemption of Man

This second and somewhat enlarged edition of a work first issued in 1889 by Dr. D. W. Simon, Principal of the Theological College in Bradford, England, is mainly concerned with the agency of Christ therein. Christ's aim is regarded as centered in the establishment of that normal relation between man and God of which holiness, health, happiness, salvation, are the natural results. It is an inward, personal relation, expressed by Jesus as the forgiveness of sins; not an external official relation, conceived of as the remission of a penalty. The latter view Dr. Simon criticises as a perilous and common error, of which Christians need to be warned as a cause of failure to come into true fellowship with God. His conception of Christ's atonement, though unduly beholden to the sacrificial and forensic terms more pertinent to St. Paul's environment, is essentially mystical, like St. Paul's, and, though presented in scholastic form, makes for vital religion. (Redemption of Man. By D. W. Simon, D.D. Second Edition, Revised. Andrew Melrose, London.)

The Reformation in England

Not the Reformation but a side question connected with it is treated here. Whether the victims of the religious persecution under Queen Mary were the blameless martyrs for conscience' sake that they are represented to be is the question which Mr. Maitland, in the rôle of *advocatus diaboli*, answers in the negative. He adduces cases of lying, scurrility, political disloyalty, and emphasizes the provocations given by various adherents of the Protestant cause. Prominent among these are the publications by which the exiled Protestants apparently endeavored to incite the dethronement of the Queen. Disclaiming partiality for her religion, Mr. Maitland professes concern solely for a historically just estimate of her treatment of the enemies of her Church and crown. The evidence he presents has historical interest, and tends to mitigate the sentiment carried by the epithet "bloody" Mary. But the fact that, as Froude states, the persecuting zeal of churchmen under the "Six Articles" Act had to be checked by the interference of Henry VIII. renders it improbable that more meekness would have secured for Protestants more toleration from Henry's more austere and less politic daughter. (The Reformation in England. By S. R. Maitland. John Lane Company, New York. $1.50.)

A Short History of England's and America's Literature

To write a short history of a vast subject in the form of animated story is so difficult a task that its successful achievement is specially commendable. Miss Tappan has done this skillfully, singling out the things most worth knowing, and showing them in a succession of flashlights that

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stay in memory. A stanza from Mistress Anne Bradstreet in 1678, our one colonial poet, an oft-quoted couplet from the Hartford wit, John Trumbull, in 1775, a poetic exclamation by the five-year-old Tennyson, the story of the first discovery of such poets as Bryant and Whittier, an anecdote of the youthful precocity of Macaulay, are characteristic of the enlivening touch given to the whole. As a specimen of the helpful criticism blended with the history this extract may serve: "The best way for most people to enjoy these [Browning's] poems is not to struggle with some obscure and unimportant difficulty of phrase or of thought, but to read first what they like best, and find, little by little, what he has said that belongs to them especially. Read some of the shorter lyrics: 'Prospice,' 'The Lost Leader,' etc." The book is well illustrated, especially with portraits. (A Short History of England's and America's Literature. By Eva March Tappan, Ph.D. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. $1.20, net.)

Species and Varieties

Half a century ago, when Darwin enunciated his now well-established theory of the descent of life, he affirmed the origin of species to be an object of further inquiry. The prevailing belief as to the way in which one species originates from another regards it as effected by a very slow process of change, under the influence of environment. Some five years ago Professor Hugo de Vries, of the University of Amsterdam, an eminent botanist, set forth in a work of massive learning, "Die Mutations Theorie," based on his experimental researches, the contrary doctrine of "origin by mutation," holding that new species and varieties originate suddenly from existing forms. This doctrine, for which further research has supplied confirmation, the present volume, consisting of lectures given at the University of California, sets forth in somewhat condensed but perspicuous form. The special field of research the botanist naturally finds in plant life, but finds his discoveries applicable for a true conception of the evolutionary processes of all life. As Newton found in an apple the law which governs the stars, so Professor de Vries found in a single plant—the evening primrose—phenomena which cleared up for him the whole problem of the production of new specific characters. Mutability appears here, constancy elsewhere. These two facts seem to him by no means irreconcilable. Mutability is probably a periodic condition, alternating with constancy in all lines of the genealogic tree. "Species remain unchanged for indefinite periods, while at times they are in the alternative condition. Then at once they produce new forms, often in large numbers, giving rise to swarms of subspecies." Among these the Darwinian struggle for existence sets in, with the survival of the fittest. "Only a few prevailing lines are prolonged through numerous geologic periods." This appears to have been the course taken in the evolution of life in the animal as well as in the vegetable kingdom. This mutation theory clears the grave objection encountered by the current belief that slow-creeping change has produced all existing forms of life—the inconceivable time required for such a process. The more conceivable period granted by physicists for the existence of life upon the globe yields all the time that biologists require for its evolution from the lowest to the highest forms. The copious work, from which it is here practicable to give only a summary of the theory which it sustains, ranks with the most important on its subject which have thus far appeared. Professor de Vries's conclusions in all important particulars have gained corroboration from recent investigations in the New York Botanical Garden. His aim in these lectures is to stimulate interest in such research. (Species and Varieties: Their Origin by Mutation. Lectures Delivered at the University of California. By Hugo de Vries. Edited by Daniel Trembly MacDougal. Second Edition, Corrected and Revised. The Open Court Publishing Company, Chicago. $5.)

The Universal Kinship

An extended argument on the thesis that all living beings are equal and have (approximately) equal rights; therefore the animals, or, as the author would say, the other animals, ought to be treated by man in strict accordance with the Golden Rule. Some of Mr. Moore's conclusions, as, for instance, that animals have not only reasoning powers but souls, will require for most intelligent readers either stronger evidence than he presents or better definition of his terms. (The Universal Kinship. By J. Howard Moore. Charles H. Kerr & Co., Chicago. $1.)

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Letters to The Outlook

THE TRUE DEMOCRACY

Mr. Sydney Brooks's article on "Democracy in England" seems to me to overlook the American idea of democracy as the fathers conceived it. To them it meant equality before the law, and opportunity to share in the government. But they recognized the natural differences between men, and the fitness for leadership that is given to the few. They maintained that this leadership existed for the benefit of the many—the greatest good of the greatest number. And especially did they enforce the duty of respect for the rights of others. Never for a moment did they suppose, as Mr. Brooks appears to, that "democracy" meant the rule of the ignorant and uneducated.

These fundamental principles of democracy come to us by inheritance from the mother country. The war of the revolution was for independence. We had freedom already. As Macaulay points out, the British aristocracy is the most democratic in the world, because the younger sons do not inherit the title, and go out into the professions or into business. The peerage itself and the highest distinctions of the realm are open to men of merit, whatever their ancestry. Lord Chancellor Thurlow was the son of a plain country parson. Lord Chief Justice Tenterden was the son of a barber. Warren Hastings was born in extreme poverty, and was himself a charity scholar. The two men most powerful in Britain during the second half of the nineteenth century were Gladstone and Disraeli, one the son of a Liverpool merchant, the other the son of a Jew.

In the evolution of British representative government we find the democratic idea of giving to the fittest men opportunity of leadership in Parliament, whatever their residence. Constituencies vie with each other for representation by the leaders. When Gladstone was defeated in Oxford, Greenwich made him welcome. When Balfour was defeated in Manchester, London elected him.

In the earlier days of the British government the landed aristocracy was the predominant influence. But the framework of this government and the traditions of the people were such that a Reform Bill extended the franchise, and then, under the leadership of Cobden, the corn laws were repealed, and finally Gladstone was able to pass a free-trade bill through Parliament. The right of an Englishman to buy and sell wherever he finds the best opportunity is democratic indeed.

As the social conscience has become more enlightened, and the duty of those who have come to own the treasures of nature is recognized, naturally the laborers feel that they ought to have a larger share in the product of the combined forces of leadership, capital and labor. Nowhere have trades unions accomplished more than in England. We must all recognize their power. But it is all the more needful to remember that government by trades unions is no more democratic than government by capital. When either the chief of the union or the capitalist is actuated by greed for power or for the aggrandizement of his own class, he is probably wrong. When either is actuated by respect for the rights of the whole people, by genuine desire to promote the greatest good of the greatest number, he is probably right, and is certainly democratic.

And we may be sure that it was not because John Burns was a docker, or a trades union leader, but because he had shown fitness for office, that he has become a member of the British Cabinet.

EVERETT P. WHEELER.

PORTO RICO COFFEE

The Porto Rican delegate in Congress, Señor Larrinaga, has introduced a bill in the House of Representatives providing for a duty of four cents per pound on all foreign coffees imported into the United States, and this measure, he contends, will develop the production of that staple in the island possessions of this country.

It will also bring from $50,000,000 to $60,000,000 a year into the Federal Treasury—sufficient to build the Panama Canal in eight years—covering also the extra cost of the work which will surely come, over the estimated cost of the work, without recurrence to any other tax. At the same time it will nearly double the present wages of the laborer in the coffee districts of Porto Rico, which at the present time are, on an average, thirty cents in those districts where the laborers are allowed to work all day long; for in some districts they are allowed to work only half a day, and consequently are paid only fifteen cents, in order that a greater number of hands may be employed in the plantations, and be allowed barely to keep soul and body together.

It would seem incredible that such condi-

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tions could exist under the flag of a nation where the average wages for farm work are never below one dollar a day. The remedy proposed by the delegate is undoubtedly that of an indirect bounty, for while the duty represents five dollars for the Federal Treasury for every one hundred pounds of coffee, it also represents very nearly that sum for the Porto Rican planter, who will be able to sell his coffee a trifle below the price at which his competitor will have to sell his. But the price at which this last one would have to sell must necessarily be five dollars higher than his present one when no duty is imposed.

And now comes the argument which is always presented, that of *the injustice of taxing the many for the benefit of the few*. The argument would hold good if there were a large surplus of money every year in the revenues of the country, and the duty were imposed merely for protection. But, besides the expense of building the Panama Canal, there is the danger of a deficit lurking around the Federal Treasury, as has been proved during the last fiscal year. The delegate claims that in the near future Congress will be obliged to call on the taxpayers for a sum approaching more or less that of $50,000,000 or $60,000,000 above mentioned—the probable amount that would be derived from the duty on coffee. So that in reality there is no such thing as taxing the many to protect the few, but taxing the many to meet their own expenses, and at the same time protecting the few. If a duty be not imposed on coffee it will surely be imposed on something else, and the delegate contends that coffee is the proper thing upon which to lay the tax. The main reason that he gives to prove his contention is that, of all necessities or commodities in the life of the poor man, coffee is perhaps the one that enters for the smallest sum in the poor man's expenses. Out of the nine cents that the poorest man spends for his breakfast, coffee represents only two-thirds of a cent, because with a pound of coffee which costs him, on an average, thirteen to fourteen cents, he can make forty cups of coffee, and as he takes, on an average, two cups of coffee at his breakfast, the coffee costs him only about two-thirds of a cent, while the rest of his breakfast, consisting of beans, pork, sugar, milk, and bread, represents the balance of eight and one-third cents. A duty of five cents per pound on his coffee would not yet make his expense for coffee one full cent per meal, which in a salary of $1.22 per day is a negligible quantity. Sugar, which is taxed to the amount of nearly two cents, represents a much larger expenditure for the poor man than does coffee, for while he uses, on an average, 11¼ pounds of coffee every year, representing about one dollar and a half, he uses seventy-eight pounds of sugar, which costs him at least four dollars and a half.

The same might be demonstrated as to wheat, beef, and almost every other article of food that the poor man consumes, not to mention his clothes, shoes, and all other articles which the poor man uses.

The argument, in short, is this: No tax on a food which costs a poor man only $1.50 a year can in the least affect the conditions of his living. For instance, tobacco, for which the poor man spends on an average of four cents per day, because of the high price at which protection allows the home producers to sell it, represents about $15 every year for the poor man. But, on the other hand, he can reach his high wages only through protection.

In recapitulating the preceding considerations, the delegate contends that a duty of five cents per pound on coffee imported into the United States should be imposed; first, because the proceeds of the duty are needed by the Federal Treasury to meet forthcoming expenses; second, because this duty does not in the least affect the poor man's food, as has been erroneously contended for a long time; third, because the duty would increase the production of coffee in all the American possessions, at the same time raising the standard of living of the natives of those countries; and, fourth, because the Administration, being committed to protection, ought to include the outlying possessions in the same policy. * *

THE JAPANESE FAMINE

Your very sympathetic notice of our work, and mention of my name in connection with relief work for famine sufferers, have brought me several sums, including one from E. P. George, of Geneva, Switzerland, who gives no address, and begs that no stamp be wasted in acknowledging his generous gift of £20. Yet our committee is unwilling to leave any gift unreceipted, and since your paper is the nearest cause of this gift, would you kindly make the acknowledgment?

Our committee has now distributed through the three provinces about 45,000 yen. The number of sufferers increases rapidly every week, but the magnificent gifts coming from many lands are bringing hope and joy to tens of thousands, and form the most striking expression of international sympathy ever witnessed.

The American people will be glad to know there never was a great calamity treated on such scientific lines as the Japanese are treat-

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ing this. There is no waste of money, and no breaking down of the self-respect of the recipients. All are required to work who can, but the hundred thousand and more of children, aged, and infirm must be cared for. This is being most carefully and scientifically done, just as the army of Manchuria was handled.

J. H. De Forest,
Of the Foreign Committee of Relief.
Sendai, Japan.

HELPING THE HOMELESS

The homeless man in the large cities presents an elusive problem to the charitable societies as well as to the police. Needy families in their homes, dependent children, the aged, and the sick are in one respect easier to treat, because they are less mobile. The homeless man is to-day here and to-morrow there; on Monday in New York and on Saturday in Chicago, as Josiah Flynt puts it. His needs are immediate, his environment in the lodging-houses is unsanitary and degrading, and his ambition generally without the stimulus of steady work or friendly association with normal people. He is hard to keep at permanent work, partly because he seldom has previous references of permanent work, partly from the wandering spirit which is characteristic of homeless men, and partly from the habits of drink and vice that are often induced or strengthened by the lodging-house environment.

The Joint Application Bureau of the Charities Building in New York has sought during the last two winters to reach in some measure a solution of the problem of helping the homeless. In March and April, 1905, 27,000 cards were distributed to the missions, the bread lines, and along the Bowery and contiguous streets. These cards invited the homeless man to avail himself of the temporary work offered by the Joint Application Bureau, which gives tickets upon the wood-yard of the Charity Organization Society, where a man may earn by three hours' steady work daily a lodging and two meals to tide him over temporarily while out of work. The card said also that hospital treatment could be secured for the sick, more permanent work furnished for the able-bodied, and transportation back to other cities for the homeless who had homes elsewhere, in case work were awaiting them on their arrival.

Over 300 men answered the invitation in March and April, 1905; of these only 127 were willing, although able-bodied, to do the wood-yard work of three hours, and only 47 continued to work until the Bureau was able to accomplish something definite and permanent. The result would seem to show that it is a mistaken notion that real suffering in a great city like New York is measured or even indicated by the number of able-bodied men in the bread lines. About nine thousand similar cards were distributed during the last winter; this time in the lodging-houses along the Bowery, in the police precincts, at the Municipal Lodging-House, and at the missions and elsewhere. The number of calls by men with homeless cards at the Joint Application Bureau was considerably more in proportion than during the winter of 1905.

Two things are significant in last winter's distribution: about three-quarters of the men calling this year have been in the city but a few weeks at the most, indicating that the "rounder" class of vagrants have "sized up" the Bureau as giving a work test that they do not desire, finding it easier to pick up the necessary funds either by begging or by other processes. The indigent newcomers to the city were strikingly willing to go to the wood-yard, only two out of 124 applicants having refused a ticket. Comparatively few, however, continued their daily work at the wood-yard until information, frequently favorable, could be received from references outside the city, where the men had previously been employed. This would indicate either that the newcomers to the city soon found employment, or that they also are quickly infected with a lack of desire to do this kind of honest work for lodging and meals. It is evident that the cheap lodging-houses are the destination of very many men and boys from the country, and that the present unsanitary and degrading influences of these lodging-houses are not only unsettling, but hostile to whatever efforts the municipality may be making to produce good citizens of its people.

Orlando F. Lewis.

SIMPLIFIED SPELLING

Since the publication of my paper on "The Spelling of Yesterday and the Spelling of To-Morrow" in The Outlook of April 15, I have received many requests for further information. I shall be greatly obliged if you will allow me to say that any of your readers who may care to send a postal card of inquiry addressed to "The Simplified Spelling Board, 1 Madison Avenue, New York," will be supplied promptly with all our circulars.

Brander Matthews.
Columbia University, New York.

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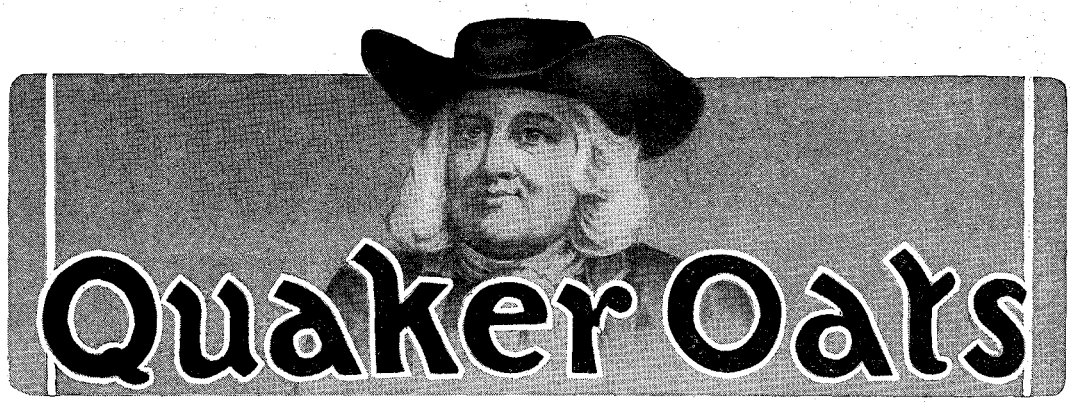

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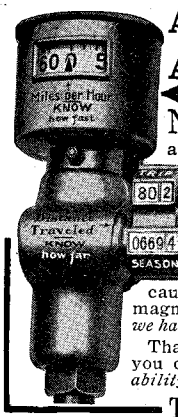

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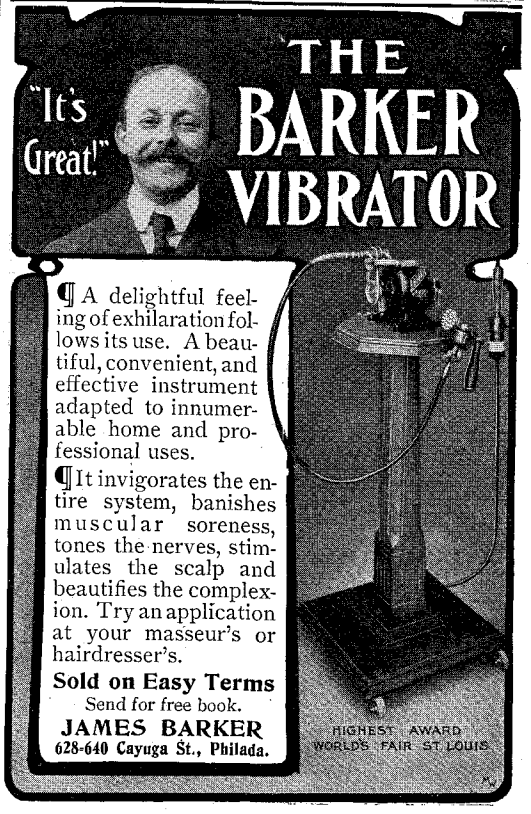
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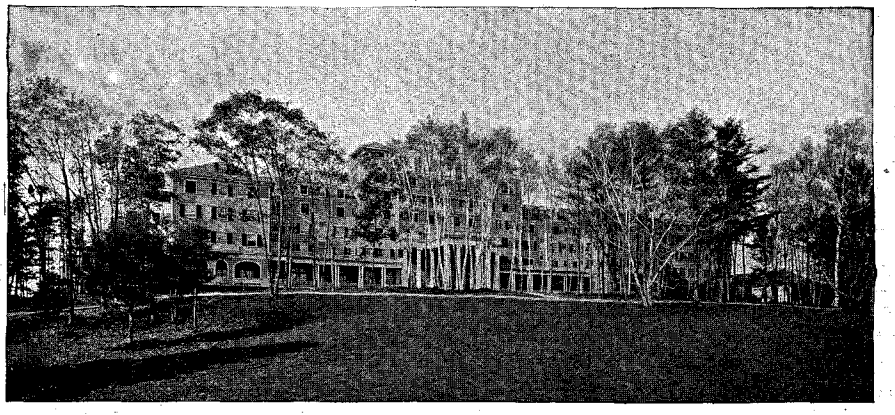
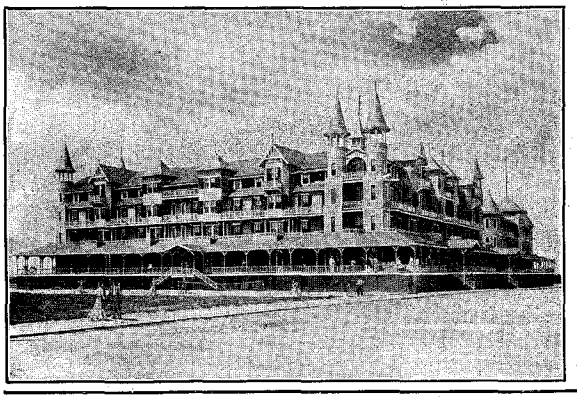


HOTEL ASPINWALL

OPEN UNTIL NOVEMBER FIRST

AUTO GARAGE

O. D. SEAVEY, Manager



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Will open June twenty-third. Excellent cuisine and service, fine orchestra. Thoroughly modern and most uniquely located on an island beach separated from the mainland by six miles of beautiful bay. Sailing and Bathing are nowhere more enjoyable, and the fishing cannot be surpassed.

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SOO-NIPI PARK LODGE and Cottages open June 30. Up-to-date hotel, 1,200 ft. above sea, on New Hampshire's most picturesque lake. Electric light, steam heat, billiard hall, elevators. 7 hours from New York. Private grounds 400 acres. Pine and balsam air. Perfect sanitary equipment. Trout, salmon and bass fishing. Grouse, woodcock, hare and deer shooting. Boating and beach bathing. Golf and tennis. Birds, botany, geology. Romantic drives and rambles. Garage. New York physician.

Address H. G. MARVIN, Manager, NEW LONDON, N. H.

Full information and prospectus at 19 PARK PLACE, New York.

Summer Hotels of the Eagle Rock Co.

Each house preserves its individuality through an efficient resident manager, while the general policy pursued in the administration of all is such as has proved so satisfactory in the past.

THE MOUNT LOOKOFF — Sugar Hill, New Hampshire

About 2,000 ft. elevation on a spur of the White Mountains facing the Presidential Range.

THE ATLANTIS — Kennebunk Beach, Maine

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THE ST. LAWRENCE ROUTE

SHORTEST, SMOOTHEST, MOST PICTURESQUE

New Fast Turbine Steamers—No Vibration

VICTORIAN.....May 24, June 21, July 19
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Saloon passage, $75 upwards. Second saloon, $42.50 upwards.
Return tickets reduced rates.

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Our NAME PLATE (as above) guarantees **correctness** of **models** and **quality.** All materials carefully selected. Construction entirely by skilled men. Variety of models. Prices from $28 up. Prompt DELIVERY.

Send NOW for free illustrated catalog.

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"The Carlsbad of Canada"

For a healthful, restful, invigorating outing go to Abenakis Springs, Que., in the heart of the French Country on the St. Francis River, 68 miles from Montreal. Unsurpassed boating, bathing, fishing, driving, tennis.

ABENAKIS MINERAL WATER & BATHS a positive cure for Rheumatism, Gout, Dyspepsia, Insomnia, Diseases of the Kidneys, Liver, and Stomach. Rates $10 to $14 per week. Beautiful booklet free. Open June 1.

R. G. Kimpton, Mgr., Abenakis Springs, Que.

Lour Lodge

DIGBY
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Write AUBREY BROWN, Mgr., Digby N. S., for rates, etc.

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overlooking beautiful

DIGBY BASIN

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Open June to October. One of the most desirable Summer Resorts **for families** on the entire coast. Situated at the widest part of Long Island Sound. With beautiful surroundings, abundance of shade, excellent facilities for bathing and all outdoor amusements. Music, electric lights. Rooms with private bath. Automobile and livery accommodations. Send for Booklet.

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Greenwich, Ct.—First-class in all respects; home comforts. H. M. HITCHCOCK, M.D.

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Berkshire Hills
INTERLAKEN INN
AT LAKEVILLE, CONN.
Open May 15th to Nov. 1st

2 hours from N. Y. Situated between two beautiful mountain lakes; elevation 1,000 ft.; fine views of Berkshire and Litchfield Hills; service and appointments first-class.

Address Manager.

Mystic, Conn.—Summer board at large, homelike private residence and college. Delightful location, high ground, overlooking sound and ocean. Plan of rooms upon application. $7.50 to $9.00. Mrs. M. R. PRENTICE.

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(EASTERN POINT)

New London, Conn.

B. H. YARD, Manager

Open from June to October. Entirely a new hotel. Everything new—furnishings, bedding, linen, silver, etc. Solid mahogany furniture throughout. One hundred bathroom suites. THE FINEST SUMMER RESORT HOTEL IN AMERICA. Address

B. H. YARD, Mgr., 71 Broadway, New York, until June 1st; after that date address as above.

The Wayside Inn

NEW MILFORD, Litchfield Co., Conn.

Open all year. Easy of access. Write for booklet B. Address Manager.

The Manor

STAMFORD, CONN.

A delightful summer hotel. One hour from New York. On the Sound, 88 feet above tidewater. 15 acres of grounds. Hotel a model of comfort and convenience; handsomely furnished; hot and cold water in every room. Cuisine and service unexcelled. Bathing, boating, fishing, driving, tennis, bowling, billiards, casino for dancing. Season opens June 15. Telephone 260. For details and booklet address **Manager, The Manor, Stamford, Ct.**

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UPLANDS IN Litchfield Hills

Altitude 1200 ft. Just an old Farmhouse; comfortable rooms, good food, fine air. Bath. Write for circular. Address The Misses FOLGER & ROGERS, Uplands, Winsted, Conn.

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The Hamilton 14th & K Sts., N.W. Washington, D. C.

A modern, **home-like hotel** on the American plan; good table; liberal management; splendid location; convenient to all places of interest; local and long-distance 'phones in rooms. Transients accommodated, $2.50 per day and up. Special rates for a prolonged stay. For particulars and booklet address

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HOW TO KEEP COOL

this summer send for guide books issued by the **MAINE CENTRAL R. R.**

Say whether seashore, mountains, or lake is desired. New features this year. Night service and sleeping cars to Rangeley Lakes. Dining cars to Bar Harbor. Address F. E. Boothby, Gen'l Pass. Agent, Portland, Me.

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BAILEY ISLAND, MAINE

Open June 15 to Sept. 15. Superior location; excellent equipment. Send for folder. T. E. HAZELL, Summit, N. J.

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Three minutes to ocean or bay; fine spring water; modern plumbing; tennis, sailing, bathing. Open June 15th. Circular. Miss MASSEY, 5000 Woodland Av., Phila., Pa.

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and Cottages

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Opens July 1. Send for booklet.

ERNEST G. GROB, Manager,
Care The Webster, 40 West 45th St., N. Y.

The Louisburg

BAR HARBOR, ME.

Opens June 30. The leading hotel of Bar Harbor. Fine location, near the romantic cliff walk. Wonderful combination of picturesque mountain and ocean scenery. No mosquitoes nor excessive heat or cold. A cuisine and service of the highest order. A refined family clientele. Adjoining cottages to let with hotel service. Transient rates $5 per day and upwards. Address M. L. BALCH, The Winchester, Brookline, Mass.

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Mountain View House
Camden Me.

High elevation. Seashore and mountains; pure water; perfect sanitation; boating; livery. Open June 25. Address Martinsville, Knox Co., Me., until June 10; after, Camden, Me. F. O. MARTIN, Prop.

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The newest and best Hotel in this vicinity. Seashore and country combined. 16 miles best roads in the State. Modern improvements. $2.50 to $3.50 per day. For booklet write to H. L. HAMILTON, Chebeague Island, Me.

Casco Bay, Coast of Maine

Delightful situation; fine views; sheltered walks; boating, bathing, and fishing; pure air and water; good food; choice company. 4 miles from railroad station.
Miss S. G. SIMPSON, Brunswick, Maine.

Dome-of-the-Rock
CASTINE, MAINE

Among the fir balsams overlooking Penobscot Bay. Hot and cold salt water baths. Delightful for July en route to the mountains, or for the season. Illustrated circulars until July 1st, Bright View, Old Point Comfort, Va.

OAK CREST, China, Me. Beautiful village home on lake. Large rooms, shady lawns, fishing, boating, driving; excellent table, pure water. Ten guests. Fourth season.

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$5 per week. Fine new house, bath, etc. Send for circular. "The Oaks," E. Stoneham, Me.

BARTLETT TERRACE.—Beautiful country surroundings; modern conveniences; bath. J. M. BARTLETT, E. Stoneham, Me. Telephone; booklet.

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OXFORD SPRINGS
OXFORD, MAINE

Richest air; purest spring water. Table a rare combination of the best foods. Cream and milk from the finest cows in the State. 300 acres lawn and forest. Auto garage. Send for booklet. C. E. FISHER, Prop.

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A home for semi-invalids. 20 miles north of Poland Spring.
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The Southgate A delightful seaside resort. Situated 10 miles from Portland.
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HOTEL DIRIGO

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S. R. CLARK, Southwest Harbor, Me.

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Opens June 1. Ocean, woods, and mountains in close proximity. Pure water, perfect drainage, electric lights, steam heat, and open fires. Sea air mingled with odors from woods give health and strength. Comfort of guests first consideration. June and Sept. patronage especially desired. Illustrated booklet sent on application.
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Two golf links, rare bathing, deep-sea fishing, fast tennis courts, fine wooded roads, music by men of the Boston Symphony Orchestra.
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Cape Ann, Gloucester, Mass.

Send for booklet. F. H. SAWYER, Prop.

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Pigeon Cove, Cape Ann, Mass.

Beautiful situation on the ocean. A quiet, modern, exclusive Inn, accommodating not more than 30 guests. Open May 30th. For circular and rates apply to
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in the Berkshire Hills

An ideal spot. Beautiful grounds, brook, and grove. Modern improvements. Fine table. Convenient to trolley.
WARNER FARNUM, Cheshire, Mass.

COTUIT CAPE COD MASS.
Santuit House and Cottages
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COTUIT CAPE COD
By the Sea, Mass.
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Open June 15. Circulars. J. A. MORSE.

"Harbor View"
COTTAGE CITY, MASS.

Under the management of The Attleboro Home Sanitarium, will open June 1st. An ideal resting place by the *sea*. Hygienic conditions, modern methods, beautiful drives, sea bathing. Treatment of neurasthenia a specialty

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East Gloucester, Mass. Ideal spot for rest, retired, yet convenient to points of interest. Ample grounds. Low rates June 1st to July 1st. Miss G. A. RENTON.

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A beautiful summer residence between Magnolia and Gloucester. Open May 1st to Nov. 1st for the accommodation of a limited number of guests. Modern conveniences; fine ocean view; boating, bathing, and fishing. Unsurpassed roads. Excellent table. For particulars address
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The Grand View

Opens June 1, 1906. Automobile service. Write for illustrated booklets. J. L. PUBLICOVER.

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Delightfully situated in a large and shady yard, very close to the river and the ocean. Nice airy rooms, very good table, Philadelphia cooking. Excellent boating and bathing. For terms apply to Mrs. BROWER.

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On Cape Ann. Picturesque scenery. Comfortable and homelike. Fine boating and bathing. June to October. S. C. STETSON.

Snow Inn, Cape Cod
HARWICHPORT, MASS.

Golf, tennis, boating, bathing. Hotel 60 yards from beach. Large power boats go to fishing grounds daily. For rates, etc., address
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CAPE COD MASS. **Cosey Surf Cottages by the Ocean,** with table board. Family resort. Low rents. Surf bathing. Address **Ballston,** West New Brighton, N. Y.

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Menauhant (Cape Cod), Mass.

Directly on the beach. Grand water view. Clientele of the best. The purest of spring water. Noted for its cuisine of exceptional excellence. Yachting unsurpassed. Fine roads. Tennis club. Music. Absolutely the coolest spot, and most luxurious bathing on Atlantic Coast. June to October. Booklet on application. FLOYD TRAVIS. Proprietor.

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THE WHITNEY HOMESTEAD
NOW OPEN. **Mrs. Harriet E. Teal.**

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MARBLEHEAD NECK, MASS.

Opens June 14th. Finest location on the North Shore. Every room has ocean view. Special rates for June. Send for circular.
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Near Lake Garfield.
Send for booklets. Rates, $8.00 to $10.00.

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One of the most beautiful locations on the north shore. L. E. PARENT.

SUNSET COTTAGE, Osterville, Mass. Where people of quiet tastes can pass a restful summer, and there is enough to entertain one. *Driving*, boating, and bathing. Miss J. F. CARRET.

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Loring Villa, Salem, Mass. Guests accommodated for the summer. Restful, healthy home. Modern conveniences. Large shady grounds; high locality. Near electrics and water. Address Mrs. Louise Maeder-Bray

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House with modern conveniences, shade, piazzas; five minutes' walk from station; Berkshire spring water used exclusively. For particulars, references, etc., apply to Miss MATTHEWS, Sheffield, Mass.

Terrace Top Shelburne Falls, Mass.

A region unsurpassed in beauty and grandeur. Airy rooms, ample closets, pure spring water, excellent table and attendance; refined, accessible. City ref.

"THE BREAKWATER"

WOODS HOLE, MASS.

Opens about June 15. Most delightful location on Cape Cod. Fine bathing (temperature of water 65° to 75°), sailing, fishing, golf, tennis. Two sun parlors. Send for circular.

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Its acres of elevated grounds, hundreds of old trees, northerly shore, one of the largest swimming-pools in the U. S.; golf, roque, boating, etc. Rev. Thos. J. Villers, D.D., writes:

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Dear Mr. Belcher:

Mrs. Villers and myself were thoroughly pleased with your hotel last summer. The beauty and quiet of the grounds, the choice character of your guests, the delicate and bountiful meals, the attentive kindness of the employees, and the entire absence of all objectionable features, made Cottage Park an ideal resting place for us.

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Weekly terms $12. Couples $20 up. Private bathrooms $5. 9-room cottage, $225 season. References, letters, booklet.

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Reservation now made. Booklets and floor plans upon application.

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In White Mountains

Homelike surroundings and courteous attention. Booklets on application.

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Has a superb climate; cool, dry, breezy, vitalizing; elevation 1,000 feet; grand views; lovely drives; charming society; for best accommodations send for booklet to Manager Robinswood Inn and Cottages; rates, $10 to $14 per week; Cottages for season $150 upward.

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HAMPTON, N. H.

Has woods, beach, best of rooms. Reasonable rates for June. Write I. E. LEAVITT.

Lake View Inn Among lakes and mountains.

Altitude 1,200 ft.; good fishing; table the best; modern improvements. Write for booklet. E. L. SMITH, Prop., Hillsboro Center, N. H.

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WHITE MOUNTAINS, N. H.

Opens June 25th. Address Miss LOUISE CRAIG, 36 High St., Brookline, Mass; after June 1st address INTERVALE, N. H.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

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The Asquam House

HOLDERNESS, N. H.

A high-class modern hotel on Shepard Hill, on shore of Asquam Lakes, commanding a view of lakes and mountains that is unsurpassed. Driving, boating, fishing, bathing, etc. Free from hay fever. Booklets.

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and BUNGALOWS

LAKE WINNIPESAUKEE, ALTON BAY, N. H.

New, private baths, large open fireplaces, electric lights, etc. Bungalows consist of 4 and 5 rooms. Opens June 1st. Address JOHN SKELTON, Jr., Manager, P. O. Box 2,536, Boston, Mass.

White Mts.

MAPLEWOOD HOTEL

MAPLEWOOD, N. H.

Principal radiating point to all places of interest in the White Mountains.

Opens July 7

SOCIAL AND SCENIC CENTER

High Altitude. No Hay Fever.

SUPERIOR 18-HOLE GOLF COURSE

MAPLEWOOD COTTAGE

opposite; accommodates 135.

Open June to Oct.

Terms moderate. Write for booklet.

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MOAT MOUNTAIN HOUSE, North Conway, N. H. On a farm one mile below village. Fine views of White Mountains; modern improvements; good table. Croquet, golf, bowling. May, June, Sept., $6 to $8 per week. July and Aug., $7 to $10. Accommodates 30. T. C. Eastman.

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200 feet from ocean. High elevation.

Rye North Beach, New Hampshire

For booklet and terms address H. E. Putnam.

THE WALPOLE INN Walpole N. H.

Opens May 24th, 1906

Circulars and floor plans on application.

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The New Profile House

WHITE MOUNTAINS

One of the finest resort hotels in the country and now nearing completion will open June 25th for its first season. Where only the best can be obtained. 20 private cottages. C. H. GREENLEAF, Pres.

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White Mountains, N. H.

The Forest Glen

Open from May 1st to Nov. 1st.

Our booklets tell the story. Send for one.

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Sport and Health.

There is splendid sport at DIXVILLE NOTCH. The limpid lake, alive with square-tailed brook trout, is some 200 yards from the porch of THE BALSAMS. Ducks, partridges, squirrels, rabbits, deer in season, and rest, health, and the best society all the time. A paradise for tired brain-workers.

Write for booklet A, with fine views of the glorious mountain scenery. Perfect relief from hay-fever. Open June 30 to October 1.

THE BALSAMS

Dixville Notch, N. H. (White Mts.)

CHAS. H. GOULD, Manager

Before June 1st, 1800 Lehigh Ave., Phila.

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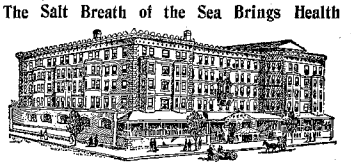
The Salt Breath of the Sea Brings Health



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Elegant new Building with every convenience for comfort and health. Over seventy medicinal and other Baths given. Sea water largely used.

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(Chelsea) Atlantic City, N. J.
THE SAVOY on the beach. Opens May 29. Most beautiful location. Bathing from house. Fine sailing, crabbing, etc. Hot and cold artesian water in all bedrooms. Electric lights, elevator to street level. First class table, best service. 3 minutes' walk from new steel pier. For terms and booklet address Miss Hanley, 1816 Chestnut, Phila., Pa. (Formerly Bear and Fox Inn, Onteora.)

THE TOURAINE, Oriental Ave., Atlantic City, N. J. Overlooking the ocean. A most attractive place to realize full benefit of a sojourn by the sea. BOYER & THOMAS.

LAKEWOOD, N.J.
THE TOWERS A family Hotel, opposite main entrance of Laurel House. Send for booklet. W. H. WRISLEY, Proprietor.

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Newfoundland, New Jersey
A MODERN HEALTH RESORT
Open Throughout the Year
Let us send you our booklet.

LLEWELLYN INN Orange, N. J.
Combines advantages of the country with easy access to New York (12 miles). Special rates for the summer. F. HERNANDEZ, Prop.

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ORTLEY, OCEAN CO., NEW JERSEY
On Squan Beach and Barnegat Bay. Half way between New York and Philadelphia on Pennsylvania R. R. Surf bathing, fishing, and sailing. Mrs. C. H. VAN GAASBEEK, Mgr. 3120 Broadway, New York.

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SEABRIGHT, N. J.
A select family hotel, on ocean front, Shrewsbury River, Pleasure Bay. Morning concerts. Evening dances. The reputation is excellent, covering 25 years. CHARLES H. DEDERER.

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SPRING LAKE, N. J.
Till June 1st address Miss VANDERHOOF, 27 Hillside Ave., Montclair, N. J.

SPRING LAKE, N. J.
Select accommodations for a few guests. Excellent table. BERTRAM COTTAGES.

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Dry, balmy air. Very healthful. Quiet and restful. Modern Hotel. 60 acres of private grounds. Bowling, billiards, riding, driving. 2½ hours from New York; 38 minutes from Philadelphia. One mile west Automobile road from Atlantic City to Philadelphia. Fine roads, Garage; attractive rates. Booklet.

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HOTEL EARLE
103-105 Waverly Place
One door from Washington Square North.
Most convenient location in
NEW YORK CITY
Entirely New Hotel. Just Completed.
Room with PRIVATE BATH, $1.50 per day.
Same room, with meals, $3.00 per day.
Send for printed matter. DAVID H. KNOTT.

7 and 9 E. 43d St.—Select family house. Centrally located opposite Manhattan Hotel. Excellent table and modern conveniences. References. Mrs. A. E. CRAWFORD.

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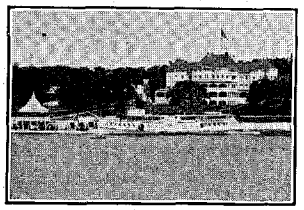

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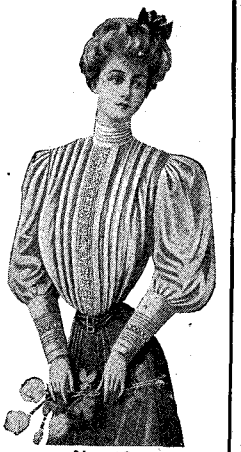

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